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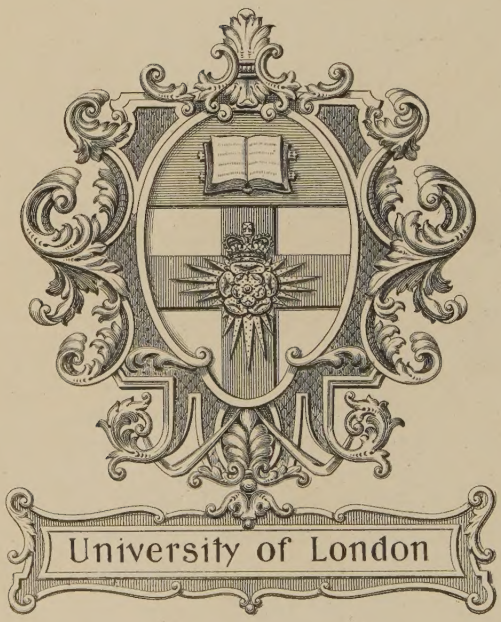
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REPORTS

FROM

COMMISSIONERS:

TWENTY-FOUR VOLUMES.

—(13—PART VIII.)—

SCHOOLS INQUIRY.

VOL. IX.

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SCHOOLS INQUIRY:

66-VIII.] VOL. IX. GENERAL REPORTS of ASSISTANT COMMISSIONERS:—NORTHERN COUNTIES - - - - p. 1

SCHOOLS INQUIRY COMMISSION.

Vol. IX.

GENERAL REPORTS

BY

ASSISTANT COMMISSIONERS.

NORTHERN COUNTIES.

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.

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FOR HER MAJESTY'S STATIONERY OFFICE.

1868.

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INSTRUCTIONS TO ASSISTANT COMMISSIONERS.

Schools Inquiry Commission,
2, Victoria Street, Westminster, S.W.,
March 1865.

SIR,

THE duty assigned to the Schools Inquiry Commissioners is to ascertain the state of education in the schools that have not been already reported on, and to recommend measures, if any can be devised, for its improvement. It is obvious, that in order to discharge this duty the Commissioners must begin by ascertaining the facts. The education now given in the schools, the facilities for improvement that may already exist in them, the demands and wishes of the parents, the cost of the present system, the probable cost of a better, the burden which the parents are willing to bear, these and similar facts must be the basis of any measures which it would be wise to recommend.

The Commissioners have already issued circulars, copies of which are now put into your hands. The answers will give much information on the chief points on which it is needed. But this information is of necessity incomplete; it requires to be supplemented by the evidence of independent observers. The masters, for instance, may tell what they teach; but it is only by independent examination that the true value of that teaching can be ascertained.

For this reason the Commissioners have determined to send Assistant Commissioners into selected districts to make careful inquiry on the spot into all the facts that bear upon the subject. The district assigned to you for this purpose is—

I. Your first duty will therefore be to ascertain the present state of education in the district. You will observe that by the words of the Commission (a copy of which is annexed), the inquiry is bounded on the one side by the province assigned to the Duke of Newcastle's Commission in 1858, and on the other by that assigned to the Earl of Clarendon's Commission in 1861. It is not possible to draw the boundary precisely in a country in which no class of society is separated by a definite line from that which is above and that which is below it. But you will understand that you are required to give your chief attention to the schools attended by the children of such of the gentry, clergy, professional and commercial men as are of limited means, and of farmers and tradesmen.

A. The schools which you have thus to inspect seem to be divisible into three classes:—

1. The grammar schools and those endowed schools which, though not grammar schools, do not appear to have been intended for the children of labourers.
2. Proprietary schools, which not being endowed, are private property, but are owned by single proprietors, or by proprietary bodies, distinct from the schoolmasters.
3. Private schools, which are the property of the schoolmasters who teach in them.

1. In regard to the grammar and other endowed schools, it is desirable to ascertain not only what is their present condition, but also how far they seem to be fulfilling the purpose for which they were founded. You will therefore endeavour to inform yourself both what sort of education the founder meant to prescribe, and to what class of children he meant to give that education. You will report whether the school appears to fulfil these two purposes; and if not, whether this is due to some fault in the management, or whether the two purposes have become incompatible with each other by lapse of time, and scholars are no longer to be found whose parents wish them to learn what the school was founded to teach.

It is a further question whether, without reference to its original purpose, the school is now a useful institution. You will, therefore, endeavour to get leave to examine the scholars, or a part of them, that you may judge for yourself what is the character of the instruction. You will report whether the education is good of its kind, and suitable to the needs of the scholars; whether the discipline appears to be careful and effective; and the moral tone sound. You will endeavour to ascertain whether the parents of the scholars appear to value the teaching that the boys receive, and particularly whether the boys remain long enough at school to derive the full benefit of that teaching. You will report whether the results, taken altogether, are satisfactory and proportionate to the amount of endowment; and if not, whether the fault appears to lie with the school or with the parents, or is due to circumstances independent of both.

You will also inspect the grounds and buildings, and report on the schoolrooms, the accommodation for boarders, if any be provided, and the playground.

Finally, it will be desirable to ascertain the estimation in which the school is held in the neighbourhood, and whether there is any general wish to have a change in the character of the instruction, or in the laws or regulations of the foundation; and if so, what are the reasons for such a wish, and whether they appear to have any ground to rest on.

2. The great increase of late years in the number of proprietary schools is a strong testimony to the disposition of the public to think favourably of the principle upon which they are founded; and it has even been suggested that the grammar schools might be much improved by attaching proprietary schools to them. It will

be well, therefore, to examine with care what special results are obtained by schools of this kind, and to what causes these results are due. It is also of importance that you should ascertain whether the control of the directors interferes injuriously with the master in the conduct of the school. In other respects your inquiry into these schools will not differ from that which you will make into the grammar schools, except that the absence of a foundation will render unnecessary any comparison of the present condition with the object aimed at by the founder.

3. The great number of the private schools renders it impossible, even if it were advisable, to make a personal inspection of every one of them throughout your district. You must be left very much to your own discretion to decide which you will visit, and how closely and searchingly you will examine any that you do visit. But you will bear in mind that the general object of the Commission is to ascertain what is the character, quality, and moral tone of the education now given to the children of the middle classes; and you must push your examination far enough to satisfy your own mind that you can give a trustworthy report on this point. Many of the schools will undoubtedly be found so like each other, that to have seen a few is to have seen them all. The few that may perhaps be exceptional will be prevented, by being exceptional, from affecting the general result. By going first to the county towns, and one or two others of considerable size, and making a tolerably exhaustive inquiry there, you will probably obtain such a general conception of the education of the whole district as will enable you afterwards to decide without difficulty what schools to visit and what to pass over elsewhere.

You will be supplied with circulars of questions to be answered, and statistical forms to be filled up for as many private schools in your district as you find willing to supply such information.

B. To the inquiry into schools of the ordinary kind it may be well to add an examination of what may be called supplementary means of education. Such, for instance, are Art schools, which the scholars of ordinary schools have it in their power to attend, and special schools or colleges in which professional rather than general education is given.

This inquiry is to be considered as strictly subordinate to the other. General and not special instruction appears to the Commissioners to be their proper province. But still there are some facts which it is important to ascertain in regard to means of education of this kind. You will examine, for instance, whether Art schools are found to put good drawing within the reach of boys who could not otherwise obtain it, and whether this may not be the cheapest and most efficient means of supplying this kind of instruction. It is a question of the same kind, whether in towns good museums may not supply means of teaching natural science; whether the scholars from several schools might not attend a common lecture in chemistry and have the use of a common laboratory.

In the professional schools and colleges you should inquire what previous general instruction is found to be the best preparation,

and whether the authorities of schools of this kind prefer that their pupils should possess sound general knowledge on their entrance, or that they should have anticipated the elements of what they are now to learn. On the other hand, it would be well to inquire how far these professional schools are themselves successful in preparing boys for professions; and, if not successful, what appears to be the reason of their failure; if successful, whether that success has to be purchased by the sacrifice of general cultivation.

C. The education of girls does not fall so largely within the province of the Commission as that of boys. Girls are much more often educated at home, or in schools too small to deserve the name. And the Commission are not charged with an inquiry into domestic education or private tuition.

But the education of girls cannot be excluded from view. It is said that there are endowments to which girls as well as boys have a claim, and it will therefore be impossible to make recommendations relating to endowments without reference to both sexes. Further there are endowments not hitherto applied to education which may possibly be so applied hereafter; and in dealing with these it seems unreasonable to take for granted that girls are to be excluded. And even if the Commissioners find themselves unable to recommend immediate measures for the improvement of the education of girls, it will still be well worth while to ascertain and lay before the public information respecting the present state of that education, and thus supply a basis for subsequent action to this end.

You will, therefore, report on the more important girls' schools in your district, and particularly on any which possess endowments. You will endeavour to ascertain what amount and kind of education is generally considered necessary for girls, what time is given to it, what it annually costs, and how far it appears to fit the girls for their after life.

II. Besides inquiring into the state of education, it will be your duty to find out from the parents what are their own wishes, and what expense they are willing to incur. Upon their co-operation all improvement must mainly depend. And even if their wishes are mistaken and arise from imperfect acquaintance with the subject of education, it is still necessary to ascertain them as an important element in the consideration of what is to be done, whether through this Commission or other agency. The wishes of the parents can, of course, be ascertained only by conversation and correspondence. In the course of your examination into the schools you are sure to meet with many whose interest in the matter and general intelligence will make their statements on this subject valuable. You will endeavour to find out how far it is the wish of the parents to alter the subjects of instruction; how far to introduce teaching of a more professional character; whether they are at all aware of the cost of a really sound education, and whether they are willing to incur that cost; what are their prejudices in reference to associating with the class below them and the class

above them; under what circumstances they would prefer day schools or boarding schools respectively. The answers to these and similar questions will be of the utmost importance in determining what measures of improvement are not only desirable but practicable. In short, you will generally endeavour to inform yourself of the desire which may prevail among the middle classes of society in your district for an improved system of education that may be made available for their children, and also of such measures as may recently have been taken to meet their wishes in this respect.

In conclusion, I am to warn you that the Commissioners can give you no compulsory powers. The success or failure of your mission will depend very largely on your own tact and prudence. It is true that your duties are of a kind that ought to encourage those who are employed in education to give you every assistance in their power. There cannot be the slightest doubt that whatever tends to throw light on the present state of education, and still more whatever tends to improve it, will largely increase the demand for teachers of every kind, and by so doing will promote their interests, and add importance to their profession. But it would not be difficult to convey the contrary impression, and to close almost all access to information by prosecuting your inquiries in an inquisitorial and injudicious spirit. It will be your duty to arrive at the truth in whatever way shall give least trouble and least annoyance to those from whom you are seeking it. You will of course make no distinction with regard to religious creed in respect of the schools you may desire to visit.

The main object of your mission will be to collect matters of fact, and ascertain the opinions of others. At the same time the Commissioners do not wish to preclude you from expressing any opinions of your own as to the remedial measures which you may think expedient. But it will be desirable that you should express such opinions in as brief and summary a manner as possible.

The Commissioners consider that your inquiry may be completed in six months, and that you will be able to finish your Report within two months afterwards.

By order of the Commissioners,

H. J. Roby, Secretary.

SCHOOLS INQUIRY COMMISSION.

REPORT

BY

MR. J. G. FITCH.

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ERRATA.—Mr. FITCH'S REPORT.

Page 166, line 4, *for* "Ædipus" *read* "Œdipus."

Page 203, line 18, *for* "Preston" *read* "Freston."

Page 269, line 11 from bottom, *for* "(*ante*, p. 77.)" *read* "(*ante*, p. 178.)"

NOTE.

The interval in the pagination has been caused by an alteration in the arrangement of the several reports.

REPORT.

My Lords and Gentlemen,

I have the honour to present to you the general results of the inquiry which you commissioned me to conduct in the West Riding of Yorkshire, and in the City and Ainsty of York.

At the close of the eight months allotted to this investigation* I have a very painful sense of the incompleteness of my work, of the vastness of the area over which it extended, of the inadequacy of my time, and of the number of interesting and important problems which yet remain unsolved. It has been my duty to seek information from many people, and to visit many places; but I never quitted one of them without a consciousness that had more time been at my disposal I could have obtained some facts which would be valuable to me, and have secured a more perfect insight into the whole question which the Commissioners desire to elucidate.

Number of institutions visited.

Acting on the instructions with which you furnished me, I have been chiefly occupied in the inspection and examination of schools. The Endowed Grammar Schools of the district claimed the first attention. Some important Proprietary establishments, including all of any note in the district, I have also been invited to visit by their respective governing bodies. Besides this, I placed myself in communication with more than 300 Private schools, from about half of which I received elaborate returns. A large number of these returns were accompanied by invitations, of which I availed myself, whenever circumstances permitted, though to a far less extent than I desired.

In the course of the inquiry, some establishments came under my observation which seemed well calculated to furnish useful experience or guidance, and although these were not specified in my instructions, I thought it desirable to obtain by personal observation some knowledge of their operations. Among these were the upper departments of some of the most famous elementary schools, schools of art, people's colleges, and evening schools.

* Since that period, and before the completion of this report, I have been for four months engaged in a further inquiry into the state of certain Endowed Schools in the North and East Riding and in Durham. I have occasionally availed myself of this later experience, in the illustration of that portion of the report which relates to Grammar and Foundation Schools. But so far as statistics and all general conclusions are concerned, as well as in all that relates to private and proprietary schools, this report is based exclusively on observations made in the specimen-district originally assigned to me, viz., York and the West Riding.

Thus the total number of distinct establishments to which I have paid visits of inquiry and inspection, is as follows:—

Endowed Schools - - - - -	65
Proprietary Establishments - - -	12
Private Schools - - - - -	73
Other Institutions - - - - -	13
	163

Method adopted in examining the schools.

In visiting institutions of such diverse character, it was of course necessary to vary very considerably the method of procedure, and to adapt such examinations as I conducted to the special character and objects of each particular school. The result of these examinations I shall afterwards give in detail, but it is fitting to state here, in general terms, what was the method of inquiry usually adopted when I visited a school. I generally carried with me a number of printed papers, of which a few specimens are given in Appendix II. In drawing up the papers marked (A) I had in my thoughts the sort of knowledge which an average boy of 14 should possess in Latin, English history, geography and arithmetic. Those marked (B) were designed for junior scholars. I gave these papers to any pupils for whom they seemed suited, and while they were being worked in my presence I conducted a *vivâ voce* examination, partly of the younger classes and partly of those scholars who were studying special subjects.

In those grammar schools which are annually tested by independent examiners from the universities or other public bodies, I did not think it necessary to pursue exactly the same course. Here it was my habit to accept the last report of such examiners, and to confine my own observations to the methods and organization of the whole school, and to the attainments of those classes which had not been otherwise subjected to examination. I everywhere sought to observe as far as possible what was the organization of the school, and what methods of teaching were adopted in it; and, whenever the teachers would favour me by doing so, I always desired that a lesson might be given in my presence, and that I might see something of the ordinary routine of instruction.

When the time allotted for the written exercises had expired it was my habit to question the elder classes on such subjects of instruction as were not included in the examination papers. I always brought away the written work with me and examined it at home; but I believe I scarcely ever left a school without inviting teachers and scholars to tell me of any subject to which they had devoted special attention, nor without asking for an opportunity of testing their knowledge of it.

A few days' notice of my intended visit was in the case of nearly every grammar school sent to the head master, and to the chairman of the board of trustees. I afterwards learned that in some places dissatisfaction was expressed at the absence of more public intimation. Letters have been sent to me complaining that no opportunity was afforded to the inhabitants of a town to make

complaints respecting the management of a school. It seems right therefore to say here, that although I never overlooked an opportunity of learning all I could of the public opinion of a district and the wishes of its inhabitants respecting their school, it was no part of my duty to make the inspection a public ceremony, or to invite any collective expression of the wishes of persons not officially concerned in the management of the school.

Method of obtaining general information on the subject.

At most of the endowed schools I had the advantage of meeting the trustees, and had opportunities of asking them many questions and of hearing their views. It was also my task to inquire into the administration and working of some trusts of a quasi-educational character, and to form an approximate estimate of the degree in which the need of better education was felt, and of the provision which existed for the supply of that need.

With a view to the more efficient discharge of this duty, I drew up a paper of questions, classifying under various heads some of the more prominent of the topics comprised within the range of the inquiry. This document is printed in Appendix III. Copies of it were forwarded to many persons of influence in the West Riding, to the principal clergy, to trustees, to country gentlemen, to the heads of the great schools, and, in short, to every person of whom I had any reason to suppose that he cared about the subject, or was in possession of special knowledge in relation to it. The Appendix will be found to contain a few selected and representative answers to these questions. The amount of correspondence thus rendered necessary was very large, and occupied closely all the brief leisure which the business of inspection left me. The nature of this correspondence precluded the possibility of my making use of the services of a clerk.

Aid rendered by the people of the district.

It seems right to acknowledge *in limine* the courtesy and kindness with which I was everywhere received. My authority to examine the scholars of the grammar schools was only in one instance questioned, and in none was it resisted. From the trustees and head masters of the schools I obtained every needful assistance in the prosecution of the inquiry, and many of these gentlemen have since favoured me with valuable and elaborate testimony on points of detail which were brought before them on the occasion of my visit. The managing bodies to whom I applied for permission to inspect the great Proprietary institutions gave me in every case a cordial welcome. A large body of the private school teachers also furnished ready and valuable help. I may confess that the number of men in public positions who evinced any great interest in the question was smaller than I had hoped to find it; but to those who did, my obligations are so great that I must be permitted to make a special acknowledgment of them here. Personal introductions and other help and guidance were given to me by the Archbishop of York, Lord Houghton, Earl Cathcart, the Archdeacons of York and of Craven, Mr. Walter Morrison, M.P., Mr. E. Akroyd, M.P., The Rev. Canon Hey, and Canon Boyd, the Vicars of Sheffield, Leeds, Doncaster, Wakefield, and Bradford, Mr. C. S. Roundell, and

the late Rev. W. Bury. If from this list I venture to single out the name of Archdeacon Musgrave, it is not only because I owe to his companionship and suggestion all my knowledge of the three endowed schools in his large parish, but also because it is mainly owing to his personal influence that those institutions have become so valuable to Halifax and so instructive to me.

The instructions which I received from your secretary indicate the order which should be observed in this report. Following their guidance, I propose to give in order my experience, 1st, of Endowed schools; 2ndly, of Collegiate schools, and other establishments on the proprietary principle; and 3rdly, of Private schools. During the course of the investigation the way seemed to clear itself towards certain definite conclusions on topics affecting the education of the middle classes generally, although several vistas of inquiry from which I had expected useful results gradually closed themselves and became hopeless to me. I have embodied in a fourth part such facts as appeared to me most likely to furnish material for your decisions on these general topics.

ENDOWED GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

ENDOWED SCHOOLS.

From the reports of the Charity Commissioners I obtained a list of the foundations which are reputed to be classical. The number of them in the district amounted to 65, but of these five have ceased to exist.

Number visited.

Of the remaining 60, 29 retain the reputation of Grammar Schools, and are endeavouring, with more or less success, to give instruction in Latin. But 31 are Grammar Schools only in name, and have ceased to yield instruction of any higher pretensions than that of a National school. To these I should add four other Endowed schools, which, though not set down in the returns as reputed Grammar schools, appeared not to be designed exclusively for the children of the poor. Of these I visited two at Elland, one at Rastrick, and one at Wortley near Leeds.

Their revenues.

With regard to revenues the whole number of these schools may be thus classified:—

Schools whose gross income—

Exceeds 1,000*l.* per annum				-	5
Is less than 1,000*l.*	but more than	500*l.*	-	-	4
„ 500*l.*	„	200*l.*	-	-	11
„ 200*l.*	„	100*l.*	-	-	9
„ 100*l.*	„	50*l.*	-	-	14
„ 50*l.*	-	-	-	-	21
					64*

The gross annual revenue of these schools derived from endowment is 18,815*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.* No data exist for the exact calculation of the income yielded by fees, since it fluctuates greatly, and as I shall hereafter show, has a constant tendency to increase,

* See the map prefixed to this Report.

even when the number of scholars remains the same. But on a comparison of the amount derivable from this source in several typical cases, I infer that it yields on the average a sum equal to about one-half of that derived from the endowment. Thus at Sedbergh, Giggleswick, and Skipton, the income from the endowment greatly exceeds the amount of the fees; at Wakefield, Halifax, Knaresborough, and Doncaster it falls short of it; at S. Peter's, York, it about equals it.* Besides the sum thus accruing from the endowment and from fees, there is the value of the buildings and ground, and the capital represented by what may be called "the plant" of the school. It would not be too much to estimate the annual interest of this sum as at least 10 per cent. of the gross revenue: in some cases it is considerably more. Thus the total annual resources of the 64 endowed schools which have come under my observation may be approximately estimated at 30,105*l.*

These schools not full.

One remarkable fact respecting the grammar schools attracted my attention at once. Scarcely any of them are full. If we except two or three schools, such as those at Sheffield, Doncaster, Hipperholme and York, there is not one which has its full complement of scholars. I have been obliged to make a rough estimate of the capacity of the schools which I have visited, seeing that no statistics on this point are included in the official forms. But I am sure that in the following table I have understated the possible number of scholars for whom accommodation is provided in the schools. Moreover, as I did not invariably count the actual number present on the day of my visit, I have in all such cases of omission credited the school with the full number claimed in their own returns. Hence any error in the table represents the attendance of the scholars in too favourable a light.

—	Number for whom accommodation is provided.	Number belonging to the Schools.	Number present.
I. 29 schools in which Latin is now taught - -	3,350	1,836	1,667
II. 35 other endowed schools	3,025	1,674†	1,263†
	6,375	3,510	2,930

The significance of these figures becomes more apparent when the general statistics of the district are taken into account. In York and the West Riding the total population in 1861 amounted to 1,548,229 persons. Of these 240,294 were returned as scholars under instruction, viz., 120,073 boys, and 120,221 girls. For the purpose of this inquiry I omit at present the consideration of the figures relating to girls. From returns furnished to me from the

* I do not include in this estimate charges for boarding, nor the profits derivable from boarders, but simply fees paid for tuition.

† About one fourth of this number consists of girls.

Council Office, I have computed that the total number of boys receiving instruction in schools under Government inspection, in this district, is 66,360. If to this we add 50 per cent., as representing approximately the number of children of the same social rank in various uninspected schools, including many of those in Class II., we arrive at a total of 99,540, or about five-sixths of the whole number returned as in attendance at school. There remain, therefore, 20,533 male scholars, who may be presumed to be at places of education above the rank of the Primary School. Scarcely any of these are provided for in the 35 schools of Class II, as they are for the most part filled with the children of the poor. The actual extent to which the Endowed Grammar Schools are meeting the demand for secondary and higher education in the district must be estimated by comparing 20,533, the probable number of boys of school age requiring such education, with 1836, the number in attendance in the 29 schools. In effect, scarcely 9 per cent. of the children of the middle and upper classes are availing themselves in any way of these endowments.*

Many have ceased to be "classical."

It will be seen that 35 schools, which have long borne the name of classical or grammar schools, have ceased to possess that character. But the number learning Latin in the remaining schools is not large. I select from the 29 schools three which take the highest place in the education of the West Riding, Leeds, York, and Doncaster,—schools in which ample provision is made for teaching the higher subjects, and in which the entire instruction, even of the lower forms, is designed to prepare a boy for University distinctions. These constitute a small but distinct class.

——	Number in the Schools.	Number learning Latin.	Number reading a simple Latin author.	Number learning Greek.
Three principal Schools	465	420	260	235
26 other Grammar Schools	1,371	607	215	134
	1,836	1,027	475	369

In connexion with this table I may remark that, in it credit has always been given for the full number mentioned in the head

* It will be seen that the assumption here assigns one-sixth of the children at school to a class above the rank of the poor. I am aware that Dr. Farr's calculation gives the smaller proportion, of from one-twelfth to one-tenth, to represent the number of the population belonging to the upper and middle classes. But since the time spent by this class of children in school is much longer, the two calculations must not be expected to coincide. It is manifest that if the school life of one class of the community extend to twice the duration of that of another, the per-centage of its members to be found at school at any given time will be twice as great. Other reasons for placing the proportion at one-sixth at least, will be found at some length in Appendix I., and are founded on a careful investigation of the statistics of school attendance in four selected towns—York, Sheffield, Halifax, and Selby.

master's own returns, in all cases in which I have not personally tested the accuracy of the figures.

The general result of these statistics is, that in the West Riding of Yorkshire there are 64 endowed schools whose annual resources from all quarters amount to 30,105*l.*, that on the books of these schools there are 3,510 scholars, of whom 2,930 were present at my visit, and that 1,027, or 29·02 per cent., professed to learn Latin, 369, or 17·04 per cent., professed to learn Greek, while 475, or 13·53 per cent., were sufficiently advanced to read a simple passage in a Latin author.*

Many endowed schools decaying.

To this it must be added that the records of the past history of these schools seem all to tell of a time in which they have been far more flourishing than at present. It will be seen from the reports on individual schools, that there are five or six which, within the last few years, have taken a new lease of life, have been raised from the dust, and have now established themselves on a new footing with high hopes of usefulness. But of the rest of the schools the majority seem to me to be steadily deteriorating. I have referred to "Carlisle's Endowed Grammar Schools" for information as to their former condition; and although his figures are too capriciously given to justify my presenting them in a tabulated form, it is evident that at the time of his inquiry (1816) the schools contained a much greater number of pupils, and gave instruction of a higher kind than at present. The numbers given in the report of Lord Brougham's Commission of 1829 are in about four cases out of five higher than the numbers now in attendance. In almost every place I have visited, and particularly in the rural districts, I find old people dwelling fondly on the traditions of the school and on its past triumphs. It not unfrequently happened that on visiting foundation schools, which are now sunk to a far lower level than an ordinary national school, I have been met by trustees who are now magistrates and country gentlemen, and informed that in their youth they received a good drilling in Latin and Greek within the same walls.

Of the fact of the general decadence of the endowed grammar schools within the county there can be no doubt. These schools are not popular; they do not possess the confidence of parents. I shall show hereafter that the class of parents whose children may be presumed to stay long enough at school, to make any use of Latin, and who are above the status of the labouring poor, generally prefer private schools; and that while these are numerous and well attended, the old foundations, with all their historical prestige and their wealth, do not attract the classes for whom they were intended. Before I proceed to offer any general observations in explanation of this state of things it may be well to refer *nominatim* to a few of the most conspicuous and typical examples of grammar schools which for different reasons fail to realize the purpose for which they were designed.

* My subsequent inquiries into the endowed schools of Durham and the North and East Riding would, if summarized, yield results still less satisfactory. Of the 53 schools which I have visited there are scarcely six which deserve the name of grammar schools. (See detailed reports on the endowed grammar schools in those districts.)

Six examples.

In one part of this district there are on or near a single line of railway six towns in succession which will furnish illustrations of the general statement I have made. If we start from Leeds and proceed up the valley of the Aire in a N.W. direction towards Lancaster, we pass in succession Bradford, Bingley, Keighley, Skipton, Giggleswick and Sedbergh. The united annual revenue of the grammar schools in these towns exceeds 4,000*l.* and if the rent of the buildings, &c., be taken into account, it nearly approaches 5,000*l.* By reference to "Carlisle" to the "Liber Scholasticus" and to the first Charity Commission report it is evident that every one of these schools has in old times sustained a high character, has turned out respectable, if not eminent scholars, and has been the centre of civilization and of knowledge to the neighbourhood in which it was placed. Yet at this moment it cannot be said that the whole six schools are imparting to twenty boys preparation for university life, or are giving in any sense classical education to fifty scholars. It will be fairer, however, to speak of them in detail.

Bradford.

Bradford Grammar School has an endowment estimated by the trustees at 900*l.* per annum. It is situated in a spirited and prosperous town, which, in 1821 contained 26,307 inhabitants, and in 1861,106,218. Thus the population has increased more than fourfold in 40 years. One would expect, therefore, that the demand for a higher education has not diminished. There are good premises, built in 1819, capable of accommodating at least 120 scholars. I found in this school 42 pupils, of whom two were reading a Greek play, and otherwise studying with a view to admission into one of the universities. Eight only were able to translate a simple passage from a Latin author. The elements of Latin are learned lower down in the school, but imperfectly. The staff consists of two clergymen, and one assistant master, who holds a Government certificate of merit. There are no boarders in the house of the head master. The school is entitled to send a candidate for the valuable exhibition of Lady Elizabeth Hastings, with 75*l.* per annum, tenable for five years at Queen's College, Oxford. But since the regulation which made that exhibition obtainable by competitive examination has been in force, the school has never sent up a candidate, and it will probably forfeit its privilege ere long.

Bingley.

At Bingley is a new and commodious school, well adapted for the reception of from 80 to 100 scholars. I found 18 pupils present; the number belonging to the school being 25, of whom six are boarders in the head master's house. There is a clergyman at the head, and a junior master, who is himself reading for the university. Of the elder boys, two are reading Virgil and the Hecuba of Euripides, and two others are reading Cornelius Nepos and the Greek delectus. Below this the knowledge of Latin, and, indeed of all else, is very elementary. Of the five boys at the head of the school two are the sons of the master, two of the vicar of the parish, and one of a neighbouring clergyman. Thus the extent to which the grammar school contributes to the general education

of the town is very limited, and all my inquiries led me to fear that it is diminishing. Yet in this town also there has been a large increase of population within 40 years; for in 1821 the number residing in the parish was 7375, while at the last census it was found to be 15,367.

Keighley is the next town in order, and here the increase of population is also very marked. It has risen in the course of 40 years from 9,223 to 18,819. The grammar school is a handsome building, well adapted for 100 scholars. The endowment amounts to 246*l.* 14*s.* 6*d.* I found 42 pupils here, of whom nine board in the master's house. Though called a grammar school, it has long ceased to deserve the name. No boy learns Greek, or can read the simplest passage from a Latin author; only two can parse or interpret an easy sentence in one of Arnold's early exercises. With these exceptions the general organization and instruction of the school are those of an average national school; and it is filled for the most part with the same class of children. Keighley.

At Skipton there is an endowment which at present realizes 758*l.* 10*s.* 5*d.* per annum, but the estates are notoriously let for less than their true value, and if properly managed would, according to the admission of the trustees, easily realize more than 1,000*l.* per annum. Here are good premises and an excellent ground. The head master is a clergyman, and has two assistants, his own son and nephew. Thirty-six boys were present on the day of my visit. The organization of the school is so confused that it was difficult to ascertain what was learned by the various classes; but the general average of instruction is very low. Fifteen of the boys profess to learn the Latin accidence, but of them ten are quite unable to write down the conjugation of a simple verb. The five boys at the head of the school are nominally reading Ovid, but only two of them could parse or translate with tolerable accuracy a line in the epistle which they had just read with the master. None are able to scan a line, and none are learning Greek; none learn Euclid, and I could find no evidence of mathematical knowledge even of the humblest kind. It is a free school, but its status may be estimated from the fact that scarcely any parents above the rank of the poor avail themselves of it; and it is not an uncommon thing for a child to be sent to the Grammar School for a time and then transferred to the National School, for the last year of his education, to finish. Skipton.

The village of Giggleswick by Settle gives its name to the rich foundation school whose condition has so often been before the public. This school has a controversial and historic literature of its own, into the merits of which I do not here enter. It is but fair to say that its present condition is rather the result of past mistakes and weakness than of any defect in its present teaching arrangements. It possesses excellent school premises, an annual revenue of 1,200*l.*, besides houses for the head and second masters, who are clergymen of high scholastic distinction and great experience. There is a third master who holds a government certificate of merit. Thus the institution is well equipped Giggleswick.

with the means of instruction. Yet there are only 37 boys in the school, and of these only 22 in the higher classes are learning Latin. The sixth form is at present represented by one boy only, and about eight scholars in all are able to read a simple passage from a Latin author. I cannot doubt that ere long confidence will be felt by the people of the neighbourhood in the excellence of the teaching arrangements, and in the unquestionable ability and earnestness of the three masters. There are other circumstances to which I will hereafter draw attention, and which make me very hopeful about the future of this important school; which once held a high rank, and in which Archdeacon Paley received his education. But there can be no doubt that at present it is under a cloud. With premises adapted for six times the present number, with so splendid an income, and so efficient a staff of teachers, it is a great scandal that there should be only 37 boys, of whom four only are boarders.

Sedbergh.

The last school in the group is at Sedbergh, a small town finely situated in the hill country, and at the edge of Westmoreland. Here there is an endowment producing 660*l.* per annum, and good premises adapted for the reception of more than 100 scholars. There are two masters, both of whom are clergymen. The number in the school is 13, of whom ten are in the upper and three in the lower school. The house of the head master is a large mansion, with accommodation for 45 resident pupils. There are, however, no boarders, except three in the house of the second master. The ten pupils of the upper school are lads of about 17, who are, as it seems to me, performing the ceremony of a nominal attendance in order to entitle themselves to the very valuable exhibitions in which this school is so rich.* When these boys shall have left, I do not see how, under the present *regime*, the school can remain open. No new scholar has been admitted for more than a year past, and at the time of my visit none were expected.

General results in these six cases.

It will be seen that the total number of scholars in these six schools is 195, and that the number of masters is 15, giving an average of 13 pupils to each teacher. Eight of the masters are in holy orders. With the single exception of Giggleswick, in which six boys are reading French with the head master, no modern languages are learned in any one of these schools. There is no teaching of physical science, and scarcely any attempt at drawing. The number of boys who have done anything deserving the name of mathematics is much smaller than of those who profess to read Latin. As to the reading, arithmetic, English grammar, geography,

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* This school possesses a claim for eight exhibitions, viz.:

One in gift of the governors of the school, of about 50*l.* per annum for three years, at St. John's College, Cambridge, for boys born in the township and parish of Sedbergh.

Six exhibitions to St. John's College, Cambridge, 33*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* Two elected from Sedbergh School every year if qualified; tenable for three years.

One at Christ's College, Cambridge, 20*l.* per annum, with preference to Kirkby Lonsdale and Sedbergh schools, for scholars of two years' standing previous to election.

Sedbergh also shares with eleven other schools the right to send candidates for the Hastings Exhibition at Queen's College, Oxford.

and history, and the power to explain the meanings of the words which occur in a reading lesson; the attainments of the boys are (I must again except Giggleswick from this general statement) far inferior to those of ordinary elementary schools receiving the parliamentary grant. The methods of instruction are less intelligent, the organization and management less methodical, and the results in the way of instruc tion and of general culture appear to me inferior both as to quality and extent.

These schools have not been arbitrarily selected as the worst in the district, but because they happen to form a group possessing a sort of geographical unity, and easily visited in succession in the course of a single official tour. They furnish, therefore, a convenient and striking illustration of the general state of the grammar schools in one part of the district. Not one of these schools is at this moment improving, and only one is in a state which justifies any hope of improvement. Yet no new public schools in the neighbourhood have superseded them; there has been no drifting of the population away from them. On the contrary, the six towns in which they are situated are the educational and social centres of an extensive and populous region, about 50 miles in length, covering the whole N.W. of the riding, and at least one-fifth of the district assigned to me. It is exactly to these points that the children of the vast population inhabiting the valley of the Aire and the district of Craven would naturally be drawn if the schools possessed the public confidence.

Reasons for the decline of the grammar schools.

In seeking for the causes of this general decadence, it will be well to consider, first of all, those influences which are external to the school itself, and afterwards those which are at work within it. Of the external causes, the constitution of the governing bodies deserves the first consideration.

Governing Bodies.

The constitution of governing bodies.

Much of the languor and inefficiency of the schools is commonly attributed to the manner in which the Boards of Trustees discharge their functions. I shall have to point out several instances of what appears to me to be faulty or negligent administration, but I have been unable to detect examples of actual malversation or fraud; and I do not believe in its existence. Legends of past jobberies float vaguely about in the remote country places—stories of trustees, who leased out the charity farms to each other at rents far below their proper value. In several instances I have heard mutterings of local discontent, and suspicions that the income was not duly accounted for; yet, on referring to the balance-sheets duly certified before the Charity Commissioners, and on taking other measures to verify the returns, it has become plain to me in every case that the suspicions were unfounded. It would be a great gain if the trustees felt their responsibility not only to the Charity Commission, but also to their own neighbours, for whose advantage the endowments were designed. In the discharge of

public trust of this kind it is impossible to be too candid; and the practice of printing the annual balance-sheet in the local newspapers is always attended with advantage. Publicity acts as a constant check on negligence and waste; it increases the interest of the inhabitants in the charity and their knowledge of its affairs. In this district the trustees who volunteer this public information are precisely those who least need the restraint which it imposes. If the practice became more general it would strengthen the local confidence in many most respectable bodies of trustees, whose reticence now exposes them to undeserved suspicion.

Publicity of accounts.

Investments of property.

It did not fall within my province to make any minute inquiries respecting the mode in which trust funds were generally invested, or the degree in which the real estates of the various charities are wisely and economically managed. To do this would have rendered necessary some very complicated investigations into deeds and leases, and would have withdrawn me from the special business in which the Commission is most interested. Moreover the action of the Charity Commission in this respect has already been most beneficially felt and is daily more influential. I have assumed throughout that while that body concerns itself mainly with the administration of charity property, it was the special object of your Commission to inquire into the state of the schools as places of education; and to ascertain details about trusts and estates, only in so far as they threw light upon the supply of instruction, its quality, and the means of extending and improving it. Nevertheless my attention has often been called incidentally to the mode in which property is invested and managed; and it seems to me that in the majority of cases there is evidence of great reformation. The old system of letting property on long leases and at nominal rents, with fines paid at renewal, is gradually being given up. I am repeatedly told by trustees that as the leases fall in they decline to renew them, but substitute the rackrental for the uncertain income derived from occasional fines. In this way the revenues of several important schools, which have suffered much from fluctuations in successive years, are becoming more permanent, and far better fitted to maintain the school in a uniform state of efficiency.

Increase in its value.

Simultaneously with the growth of a better system of managing the charity property, there has been in this district a steady and remarkable increase in its absolute value. It will be seen from the tabulated appendix that in some cases the income is derived from a rentcharge, and in others from a permanent investment in railway stock or in consols. But in almost all other cases I have learned that the value of the property is steadily increasing. The only exceptions to this general statement are to be found in the villages and small towns of the north west of the district. In these I have learned that the farms were for the most part not rising in the market nor likely to rise. The number of schools, however, which report their income as increasing amounts to 24, and among

them are included nearly all the important institutions in the West Riding.*

TRUSTEES. Mode of their appointment.

The mode of appointing trustees differs very materially in different places. In the tabulated returns appended to the Commissioners' report will be found a record of the various tenures on which these gentlemen hold office. I will here only refer to one or two forms of trusteeship which seem to me to work ill, and eminently to deserve the attention of the Commissioners and of all charity reformers.

Trustees often not the patrons.

In many cases, the trustees form a body wholly distinct from that in which the patronage of the school is vested, and they have thus no voice in appointing or dismissing the head master. Thus, at Pontefract, the trustees consist of the principal members of the Corporation, and other influential inhabitants, but the nomination to the head mastership rests with the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster. At Sedbergh the trustees manage the estates, but the head master is appointed by the Master and Fellows of St. John's College, Cambridge. At Adlingfleet the appointment of the head master is in the hands of St. Catherine's College, Cambridge. The nomination to Drighlington rests with the authorities at Peterhouse; while the Archbishop of York appoints the head master of the Hemsworth Grammar School, and the Dean of York exercises similar patronage in the case of the Endowed School at Sherburn.

I am far from asserting that appointments thus made are *à priori* less likely to be judicious than if they were made by the trustees. It happens, indeed, that some of them, as will be seen in the reports on separate schools, have been unfortunate. As a rule, however, such nominations will probably be neither better nor worse than others. But they have one serious disadvantage. In each of these cases the function of the trustees is to receive the rents, to maintain the premises in repair, to keep all accounts, and to pay the balance to the head master. Thus their powers are limited to the administration of the property, while all real con-

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* A remarkable but characteristic instance of this tendency to increase is to be found in the following extract from a statement by the Vicar of Halifax, respecting the charities founded by Nathaniel Waterhouse, in that parish:—

"The income of the charity, which at its foundation was not more than 130*l.* 17*s.*, and which above a century afterwards, in 1741, was only 248*l.*, had in 1777 risen to 340*l.*, and as we trace it down through decennial periods subsequent to this date, we find a continuous if not uniform increase:

In 1717	- - - £476	In 1827	- - £1,193
„ 1797	- - - 552	„ 1837	- - - 1,238
„ 1807	- - - 740	„ 1847	- - - 1,380
„ 1817	- - - 1,100		

betokening an active and becoming interest on the part of successive governors in superintending and improving the property committed to their charge. . . . . While the disposable income, so far from being reduced, has, within seven short years, increased from 1380*l.* to 1450*l.*, there has been so sensible an advantage to the trust, from sales, exchanges, and other agreements effected under the Act, that we are in a condition, under the sanction of the Court of Chancery, at a cost of not less than 7000*l.*, to substitute for the shapeless and confined buildings on the former site the vastly more commodious, seemly, and enlarged edifice in course of erection here."—Address on laying the first stone of Waterhouse's Almshouses, 1854.

trol over the school belongs to a remote authority, with which they have little sympathy and no intercourse. However they may deplore the inefficiency of the school, they are utterly powerless, for they are scarcely entitled to remonstrate with the head master, still less to control or to remove him. The inevitable consequence of this arrangement is, that the trustees learn to consider themselves as bailiffs merely; and either disregard the educational character of the institution altogether, or become weary of a responsibility which is at once burdensome and illusory.

At Skipton there exists an arrangement which seems to me to be especially absurd and inconvenient. There are two distinct bodies concerned in the management:—(1) the Trustees proper, who receive the rents, pay all outgoings, and hand over the balance to the head master. (2) the Vicar of Skipton, with the churchwardens of his own and of several neighbouring parishes. This latter body determines the conditions under which the property shall be leased or let, and to it is also confided the duty of appointing the head master. Thus there are two separate corporations; and they exist side by side in a state of chronic hostility, and have no communication with each other.*

Now it happens that in this instance the board of trustees represents with unusual fidelity the wealth, intelligence, and personal influence of the district. These gentlemen are called upon to receive rents for farms which are let considerably below their value, and to hand them over to a school which is notoriously inefficient; yet they are unable to remedy either evil. The vicar and churchwardens acknowledge that the estates ought to be let on terms more favourable to the school; but they have no interest in increasing a fund which they have no share in administering. At the same time they express great anxiety that the present head master should soon be induced to retire, for the very obvious reason that they would then immediately proceed to exercise their right of appointing his successor. Indeed, I learned from these gentlemen that they had already fixed upon their nominee, and that there would in the event of a vacancy be no competition for this important post. I cannot conceive a more unfit body than a group of country churchwardens for the exercise of such a trust. Since the vicar has a veto on any appointment which the majority might make against his will, the practical effect of the existing arrangement is to place the patronage in his personal gift, and the past history of the school shows that this has seldom been favourable to its interests as a public institution. I am glad to find, that through the opportune intervention of the Attorney-General, measures have been taken which will at least

* An example of this occurred at the time of my visit. While I was engaged in the examination of the school, in the presence of the late Sir C. Tempest and other trustees, a letter from the vicar was placed in my hands, protesting in the name of himself and of the churchwardens, against all proceedings which took place in his absence. My notice of visit had been sent officially to the head master and to the chairman of the board of trustees, some days before, but the vicar complained that he had not been made acquainted with it.

necessitate some delay in carrying out the intention which the vicar and churchwardens communicated to me.

There is a well endowed school at Askrigg, the trustees of which are the principal clergy and landholders of the district; but the absolute right of nominating the master rests with two small farmers residing at a distance, who are not trustees, but who exercise the right as being the nearest of kin to the founder.

It is evident that much of the languor and decay which more or less characterize all these schools is attributable to the peculiar constitution of the trusts. For while it imposes considerable responsibility upon the trustees, it deprives them of that influence over the management of the school which alone gives interest, dignity, and public importance to their functions.

Trustees often uneducated.

A frequent cause of inefficiency is the absence from the governing body of any person whose social position places him above the reach of sinister influences, or whose education qualifies him to interfere in the management of a school. This evil exists most frequently in rural districts and in small country towns. In several such cases even the parochial clergyman fails to obtain a seat at the board. Thus, at Adlingfleet, at Haworth, at Heptonstall, at Drax, at Thornton, and at Kirkby Malham, I found that the vicar of the parish was not on the trust, nor cognizant officially of the state of the school. At Long Preston he is expressly excluded by the terms of the founder's will. But there are other cases in which the presence of one man of education is found insufficient to secure enlightened and judicious management, since he may be practically out-voted by a body of small tradesmen or tenant farmers. At High Bentham the rector is *ex officio* a trustee, but the remainder of the board consists, with one exception, of the sidesmen of the parish. In a recent instance, when two vacancies occurred, a strenuous endeavour was made by the Rector to fill them up by the appointment of two gentlemen of considerable property in the neighbourhood. The proposal was, however, strongly resisted by the rest of the trustees, who preferred to supply the vacancies by the appointment of two men of their own rank in life, of whom one is a small publican in the town. This case is typical of many others in which I have observed considerable jealousy and distrust on the part of a small body of local trustees, at the introduction among them of any one possessing the education and standing of a gentleman.

Or non-resident.

On the other hand, it occasionally happens that although the administration of the trust is in the hands of men of property and intelligence, they become in time separated from the place, and imperfectly acquainted with the wishes of the inhabitants. Thus at Batley, all the trustees, with the exception of the vicar and one gentleman of advanced age, reside out of the township. Considerable dissatisfaction is apt to arise in such cases among the inhabitants of the place, however conscientiously the trust is managed; for it is difficult to persuade the people that their interests are properly cared for by gentlemen who have no imme-

diate connexion with the town, and who are under no obligation to fill up the vacancies in the trust by the appointment of inhabitants.

Or too few.

At Kirk Sandall there are only four trustees, and the improvement of the school is seriously hindered by the fact that one of them has removed to a considerable distance, and that it is next to impossible to obtain his sanction to any change.

At Drax there is a provision in the will which operates most injuriously to the school. Here the maximum number of trustees is six. When, however, this number is reduced to two or to one, the survivor is bound to nominate six others, and to resign the trust into their hands. In this case the Messrs. Waud, who have shown an enlightened and honest interest in the welfare of the school, have placed it on an excellent footing, and administered a large revenue with marked advantage to the whole neighbourhood, cannot fulfil the duty of nominating other trustees without depriving the institution of the great advantage of their personal services, and leaving the whole management in the hands of persons entirely new to its details. It is quite clear that if they were at liberty to call in as coadjutors the vicar of the parish,* and two or three of the leading residents, the work so well begun would have a chance of being carried out: but the present system destroys the continuity of the whole management. This difficulty arose in the year 1835, when the number of trustees had been reduced to one. The opinion of counsel was taken on the question whether the old trustee or trustees had the power in renewing the trust to convey to themselves or not. The result was that the survivor was legally advised to relinquish his own trusteeship altogether.

Or powerless, owing to the nature of the property entrusted to them.

The position of trustees of schools whose income is derived from a rentcharge or from a fixed sum vested in the funds, appears to me specially unsatisfactory; for their duty is merely nominal, and even the name of trustee is wholly unmeaning.

At Snaith there is a small endowment of a fixed sum, chargeable on the estate of a non-resident landowner. This gentleman inherits from his ancestors the liability to pay, and with it the title of sole trustee. In practice, he confides the whole business to the vicar of the parish, whom he nominates head master, and who engages a substitute to teach in the school. It is evident that in such a case the trusteeship is altogether illusory. It depends upon a mere accident whether or not there is on the part of the sole trustee any sense of responsibility, any interest in the school, or any supervision over it.

At St. Crux, a parish in York, property is vested in the funds in the name of the archbishop, the dean, and the recorder of York. The annual dividend, amounting to 180*l.* 4*s.* 6*d.*, is paid

* It seems to me a special misfortune here that the Vicar of the parish is not on the trust, seeing that not only the grammar school but four elementary schools which furnish the means of instruction for the poor of the whole of this wide parish, are sustained out of the same fund: and the clergyman has no official connexion with any one of them.

regularly through a bank, without any deduction, to the master, who is bound to provide a room, and to teach the children of the parish. Here, since 1838, the present master has carried on a school, in a little room which would make a tolerable class-room for a national school, and for which he pays a rent of 7*l.* 7*s.* per annum. The Lord Mayor of York, and the minister and churchwardens of the parish, are *ex-officio* trustees, and appoint the head master; but it is manifest that their control over the funds or the management of the school is purely nominal, and that with powers so restricted it is very unlikely that anything short of a great public scandal would induce them to interpose.

At Tadcaster there is a grammar school possessing an estate the gross rental of which is 130*l.* This sum is received and the property managed by the head master, who is practically the landlord and the sole trustee of the estate. The governors are the Archbishop and the Dean of York *ex officio;* but the only occasion on which the power of these dignitaries is exercised is on the avoidance of the head mastership, when they fill up the vacancy. Since the master has been in his post for 35 years, the present archbishop and dean had, of course, no share in the appointment. It is indeed difficult to see how they could interpose with advantage, seeing the master enjoys a freehold in his office, and has never been subject even to the control implied by an annual examination and report.

At Knaresborough, the only income of the grammar school is a rentcharge of 20*l.* per annum, which is extremely well applied, for the trustees, instead of attempting to support a school on so small a sum, selected a successful private schoolmaster in the neighbourhood, and allowed him to bring his own boarders to the grammar school, merely reserving to the boys of the town the right of admission at certain reduced rates. I do not think a better use could be made of so small an endowment, than to give prestige and position to a good private school. But the fact that it is a rentcharge practically deprives the trustees of any supervision. At the time of my visit the board had not met since 1851.

In one or two notable instances the number and importance of the trustees are absurdly disproportioned to the worth of the property which they have to administer. Thus at Normanton there is an endowment which is charged on some estates held by University College, Oxford. There is a small freehold house and school-room, and an annual revenue of 10*l.*, supplemented by a further sum of 10*l.* gratuitously added by the college. The original testator, Mr. Wm. Freston, appears to have entertained a strong sense of the importance of the institution thus munificently endowed, for in his will he provides:

"And for the better order, government, directing, and establishing of this my meaning, I commit the nomination, placing, ordering, government visitation, reformation, direction, displacing and expulsion of the said schoolmaster, usher, and scholars of my school in Normanton to the head master of the University College, and Emmanuel College, and to the rector of Lincoln College in Oxford, and to every Fellow of the two former said colleges by them sent

for that purpose into Yorkshire, and to mine executors and to the vicars of Wakefield, Pontefract, Leeds, Normanton and Kirkthorpe, and their successors for the time being, and to him or them of the scholars that have or shall be maintained by me as aforesaid, in either of the said Universities, and to my cousin Richard Freston, of Mendham, and to his heirs for ever, or the more part of them, as for that purpose shall be assembled in the church of Normanton aforesaid, and my said cousin Richard Freston and his heirs if the number of them be equal, having a casting voice."

To call together all these persons from a distance to see to the right expenditure of 10*l.* per annum, is obviously absurd. And since the master, who holds a freehold in his office, is irremovable except by a process so cumbrous and formal, the practical effect of this arrangement is to leave him without supervision of any kind. He enjoys the house and garden with 20*l.* per annum, and such fees as the children pay. I found him leisurely reading "Bell's Life in London," while 11 children were following their own devices. The vicar of the parish, who is absolutely powerless in the matter, has for years desired to get a good National School, but has found it impossible, because this worthless school already existed in the parish.

This district does not contain any other examples sufficiently striking to deserve notice, of a trusteeship which is actually rendered nugatory by the weight and importance of the authorities in whom it is nominally vested. Yet in the course of the inquiry many persons have conveyed to me their suggestions on this point, and I have found a strong opinion adverse to the appointment of mere *ex-officio* trustees selected on the ground of their personal or official eminence, but without any local associations or near interest in the school. To govern a school by a parish vestry is indeed a great mistake, but to govern it by indifferent persons at a distance, who know little or nothing of the local needs, would not be much better, however those persons might be qualified by knowledge of public affairs.

The best form of trust.

Two requirements seem to be important in the constitution of an efficient board of trustees:—a specific knowledge of the neighbourhood and its wants, and a general knowledge of education, and of the principles on which it should be given. But it is difficult to find these two classes of qualification combined in the same persons. The former are most likely to be possessed by reputable and intelligent inhabitants of the place; the latter by men of higher education at a distance, who are free from local prejudices, and who are capable of taking what Comte calls *vues d'ensemble.* If these are needed to secure wise government, the others are scarcely less necessary to ensure local confidence and adaptation to local wants. Both are indispensable. It does not seem to me that any school in this district can hope to be well governed unless its constitution provides for each in its due proportion.

Self-elected trustees.

The plan of giving to each body of trustees the power to elect its own members is common throughout the district. In two cases only are the trustees elected to their office by the suffrage of the

parishioners. In five cases the whole of the governors are *ex officio*, in six others a portion only of the trustees are self-elected, while the rest serve *ex officio;* in fifteen others the only *ex-officio* governor is the incumbent of the parish. In these last and in the remaining 36 the whole of the trustees possess the power of filling up the vacancies as they arise. The obvious effect of this arrangement is to perpetuate either for good or evil whatever character is stamped upon the institution. Each little corporation continues to supply the vacancies as they occur with men of its own class. A small body of country gentlemen is apt to go on for years filling up vacancies by the nomination of private friends, without any regard to the feelings and wishes of the inhabitants. If, in the course of time, a trust lapses into the hands of men who all profess the same religious belief, they not unfrequently impose upon themselves a rule that they will elect none of another creed, even when no such limitation on their choice is imposed by the founder's will. Great local dissatisfaction often arises in this way. On the other hand, this power of self-renovation is of special value whenever the trusts are held by the right men. Thus, in the large parish of Halifax there are three rich and important foundations—the Heath, Rishworth, and Hipperholme grammar schools. It is largely owing to the zeal and fidelity of the Venerable Archdeacon Musgrave, who has been for nearly 40 years vicar of Halifax, that every vacancy as it occurs is filled up by one of the foremost men in the district for wealth, intelligence, and public spirit. I can conceive no better arrangement for such schools than that those who hold office should fill up their own ranks as vacancies arise. On this point Mr. E. W. Balme, a gentleman of property, who has had great experience in the working of charitable trusts, remarks:—"Whatever may be the defects arising from the usual "mode of appointing trustees by their filling up vacancies in their "own number, I question whether any other mode of appoint-"ment, as for instance, election by a large body of voters, would "not involve greater evils."

Local trustees, the narrowness of their policy.

It has been the wise policy of the Charity Commissioners in establishing from time to time new schemes, to add to the number of trustees, and in particular to extend the area from which they are chosen.

Of all reforms this seems to be the most needful. Whenever the trust is confined to the residents in a particular village or small town the school is sure to languish. There is an incurable pettiness and narrowness in the policy of boards so constituted. With them a shadowy and uncertain tradition seems often of more value than the true interests of the schools. They cling to the literal interpretation of the founder's will, even after it has become impossible to carry it out; they are even content to let the school sink into decay before their eyes rather than abandon some technical rule which hinders its development, and is clearly unsuited for the altered condition of modern society. If circumstances have made the continued existence of an institution on the footing of a grammar school practically impossible, the local trustees are

generally the last persons to acknowledge the fact. If it becomes clear that by the removal of certain local restrictions, a school, worthless to people living on the spot, might be made useful and attractive to the inhabitants of the whole county, the proposition is almost always unwelcome to them. At best they estimate the goodness or badness of the school by its usefulness to the parish, and keep out of sight the relation in which it stands to the district of which that parish is the centre.

Examples.

Thus at Haworth, in the parish of Bradford, there is an endowment of 92*l.* 10*s.* and a good house for the head master. The trustees are self elected, and are confined to the immediate neighbourhood. The clergyman of the parish is not on the trust. Here I found thirteen boys so ill instructed that I shall have hereafter to describe the school at length as a type of the worst schools in the district; yet in reply to my communication I received an official letter conveying to me the resolutions adopted at a meeting of the trustees, as follow:—

"That the trustees consider the present state of the school adapted for all classes of society in the township of Haworth;

"That the trustees are satisfied with the present state of the school, and do not contemplate any plans for its improvement."

In the case of another school, to the decayed and disgraceful state of which I have already referred, I asked the two leading men of the trustees whether that body was prepared to take any measures by way of remonstrance or otherwise with a view to place the school on a better footing. The reply was in the negative. It is true that these gentlemen are legally powerless in the matter, but any representation on their part to the Charity Commissioners could not fail to have great weight: that representation, however, they are unwilling to make.

In many such cases I have observed that dread of the strifes and misunderstandings that are apt to arise in a small town becomes an excuse for acquiescing in a great public wrong. In short, personal interests are relatively larger and public interests relatively smaller in proportion to the narrowness of the area from which the trustees are chosen. The difficulty of dealing with the case of a schoolmaster is greatly increased by the fact that he is a near neighbour, a conspicuous man in a small town, with a little knot of personal friends or enemies, and it is hardly possible in such circumstances to discuss any public question affecting him on its own merits.

Limitation to local bodies not injurious in the large towns.

The evils to which I have thus referred are, however, mainly confined to small towns. In large parishes like Halifax, Leeds, Wakefield, or Doncaster, a rule which limits the governing body to the residents, works exceedingly well, and is not open to the objection just stated. A head master of great experience testifies of one of these boards, "No relations could be more satisfactory "than mine are with the trustees, who are sensible and business-"like men, most courteous and considerate towards me, and wholly "uninfluenced by any narrow local spirit." This testimony repre-

sents, I believe, the general feeling when the governing body is composed of the shrewd and wealthy men of the greater towns. Such bodies generally show a real interest in the prosperity of the school and a pride in its successes.

Visitors.

In ten schools in this district the statutes recognise a Visitor, who is sometimes the head of a college at one of the Universities; in one case the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, but more generally the Bishop of the diocese. My inquiries have led me to conclude that the visitorial power is throughout this district utterly nugatory. The cases in which any interposition has occurred within living memory are very rare. Indeed, when it is remembered how jealously the law has restrained the exercise of this power, how strictly it is limited by the statutes of the greater number of schools to specific acts, and how difficult it is even according to the testimony of the best equity authorities to distinguish clearly between the functions of a visitor and those of the Court of Chancery, it is not surprising that the visitorial power is so seldom used. Legally it does not extend to the course of education, to the internal discipline of the school, to the books to be used, or the hours of attendance. It is only when there is any substantial deviation from the principle and purpose of the institution, that the visitor may be called on to interpose.*

Theoretic limitations to their powers.

But the authority is in fact never exercised except in conformity with some appeal which has been made to the Visitor, or in obedience to a mandamus from the Queen's Bench putting his power into action. The cases which are legally referable to the visitor are of exactly the kind with which the Charity Commissioners deal. When that Commission authorizes the removal of a master, or sanctions a new scheme, or makes any order; notice is to be given to the visitor, and he has a right to be heard previously to the making of any decrees or the establishment of the scheme. The recent legislation upon the law of charities preserves the rights of visitors, but at the same time it does much to render those rights superfluous; and it is yearly more and more manifest that the powers of visitors are not beneficially exercised.

Practical limitations.

I have only known one case in which the power of the visitor was referred to as if it were a reality. I had occasion to meet the trustees of a school to hear from them the particulars of a new scheme, on which they had held anxious deliberations, and from which they hoped to derive great advantages. Among other propositions I observed that the scheme contemplated a limitation in the choice of all future trustees to members of the Church of England. I asked whether this was a new provision, and in reply was told that no such conditions had ever been insisted on before. "Why then should a restriction of this kind be set up "now for the first time? Had any new bequest been made annexing "this provision? Had the clergyman or any other member of "the trust declared that it would not be possible to work with

* Tudor's Law of Charitable Trusts, p. 152.

"dissenters? No." The reason was, it was admitted, that the Bishop of the diocese was the visitor, that his sanction was legally necessary to the acceptance of a new scheme, that on some other grounds the scheme would probably not be acceptable to him, and that it was hoped by this clause to propitiate his favour and to disarm his opposition.

It does not appear that any amount of negligence, short of actual non-residence or refusal to keep the school at all, ever calls the visitors' power into action, nor can I find any case even among many flagrant examples of worthless teaching, which are to be found in my district, in which a visitor has interposed. He never examines, he receives no periodical returns as to the numbers or state of the school.

> "Nec deus intersit nisi dignus vindice nodus
> Inciderit."

In practice he never interposes at all. The *nodus vindice dignus* seldom or never occurs; he has a right, it is true, to hinder legislation or change, but he never initiates either.

General conclusions respecting the constitution of governing bodies.

The data thus collected will suffice to show how varied is the condition of the different trusts, and how impossible it is to apply any uniform rule of reformation to them all. Each school has its own special needs, and the remedy which would be appropriate for one would be wholly unsuited to others.* But the general conclusions to which my experience has led me respecting the constitution of trusts may be thus summarized:

I. That if the number be below six the business of the school falls into the hands of two or three persons, and is administered rather as a piece of private patronage than as a public trust.

II. That if the number exceeds 12, the sense of individual responsibility is weakened and each member of the trust is apt to suppose that others will do the work.

III. That it is very desirable that one, *e.g.*, the vicar of the parish, should have a seat at the board *ex officio*.

IV. That one-half may be advantageously chosen from the actual inhabitants of the town or parish in which the school is situated.

V. That the remainder may be properly selected from the gentlemen of highest social position and education, within an area of, say 20 miles.

VI. That trustees at a distance not connected by property or residence with the district, but chosen because of their academic position, or personal eminence, are rarely or never useful in the management of a local trust.

VII. That the power nominally exercised by visitors, is virtually obsolete, and that the increased usefulness of the Charity Commission furnishes a reason for dispensing with it altogether.

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* I have said nothing of a governing body composed of a Dean and Chapter, which forms indeed an exception to all general rules. But it is right to say that two of the finest schools in the north of England are the Cathedral schools of York

Appointment of Masters.

In considering the powers exercised by the governing bodies, that of the appointment and removal of head masters is manifestly the most important.* With the few exceptions which I have already enumerated, this power is generally exercised by the trustees.

Freehold masterships.

In the great majority of cases, the mastership is a freehold office: it confers upon the holder a county vote, and is held for life, or on such a tenure that he is practically irremovable except for gross immorality; and after a cumbrous and expensive appeal to a court of equity. The working of this arrangement is undoubtedly mischievous. All the testimony which I have collected from trustees and others on this point, is adverse to the present system, and much of my personal experience has been of a nature to confirm this testimony.

Their practical inconveniences.

It is not necessary to dwell on the theoretic inconsistency between a freehold and such a function as that of the schoolmaster. It will suffice to point out its practical inconveniences. The care and management of land, which fall to the share of some head masters, are duties for which they are often suited in exactly inverse proportion to their fitness as teachers. They are seldom good landlords, for they are in the position of very small holders without capital to expend judiciously on repairs, on draining, or on other improvements. A man who derives a small annual income from land or houses and who has only a life interest in it, is apt to postpone necessary expenses as long as he can, and to be more sensible of the inconvenience of a diminished income for a single year, than of the permanent interests of the property.

As to the estates.

As to the work of the school.

It is still more serious to consider the influence exerted on the mind of a schoolmaster by the fact that he holds such an office. He comes to regard the rents and profits of the school as income derived from property, and not as a stipend which has to be earned. He holds his office on terms which are unknown in every other profession except the clerical. He regards himself as fixed for life. He can threaten an appeal to the Court of Chancery if any attempt is made to dismiss him. If the governors desire to obtain the sanction of the Charity Commission to a new scheme, he can, if he chooses, prevent their action by withholding his consent. If they propose any change which will make the school more popular, or add to his work, he replies: Why should I take any trouble about it? Why should I give other knowledge when I am simply bound by statute to teach Latin and Greek? And from his point of view it is difficult to reply to these questions. He is no longer a salaried officer, whose first business is to do certain work and who receives payment on

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and Durham. Both are managed exclusively by the Capitular body, and are maintained out of Cathedral funds. Both schools are at this moment fulfilling with complete success the purpose of their foundation; and from the two almost as many students proceed to the Universities as from all the rest of the Grammar schools in both counties put together.

* See, on the general subject of nomination to head-masterships, the Report of the Commission on the state of Popular Education in England, 1861, pp. 469–71.

condition that the work is done. He is a corporation sole, in legal possession of an estate, to which certain duties are incidentally attached; and he reserves to himself the right to interpret those duties, and to reduce them, if he chooses, to a minimum. The tenure of his office is such as to offer a direct premium to negligence. He has, in short, rights and claims which are almost always incompatible with the best interests of the school, and which are often directly hostile to them.

Examples of their working.

That these are not imaginary evils will be manifest from the whole tenor of the separate reports. I will here give one or two examples:—

In one town the head master, many years ago, closed the old schoolroom, let it and the dwelling-house to a tenant, and removed to a house a mile off, taking with him some of the school furniture and fixtures. Here for many years he has kept a large school, in which boys of a superior rank in life are admitted at the fees usually paid in good boarding schools. But nothing has been done which would not have been equally well done without the endowment. The inhabitants complain that the school has ceased to be in any sense a public institution; that the old site, the old statutes, and the privileges of the town have been obliterated, while the revenue, amounting to about 100*l.* per annum, is enjoyed by a gentleman whose relation to them is exactly that of any other private schoolmaster. Yet they have no remedy. There are no trustees; the master is a corporation; he receives all the income of the charity, and is subject to no control.

At Pocklington, in the East Riding, the head master and the usher constitute a corporation, and are the legal trustees of the estates, which are very extensive, and necessarily demand much supervision. Under the skilful management of the present head master they have greatly improved in value: the premises have been enlarged and almost entirely rebuilt, advantageous changes have been made with neighbouring landowners, fields have been drained, walls and outbuildings erected, and rents advanced. With the sanction of the Charity Commissioners, nearly 4,000*l.* have been borrowed on mortgage and judiciously expended. This debt is being gradually cleared off, and in seven years the grammar school of this little country town will possess an unencumbered annual income of 1,500*l.*, with large house, fields, and farm-buildings besides. In the hands of any but a head master of extraordinary energy, it can scarcely be doubted that the duty of managing so important an estate will seriously diminish the attention which it will be in his power to give to the proper business of the school.

The difficulty arising from the tenure on which masters hold their offices is often a serious hindrance to the reconstruction of a school on a good basis. Thus at Shipton, near York, the zeal and munificence of the Hon. Payan Dawnay, who is lord of the manor, have resulted in the establishment, under a trained master, of an excellent National School on the site and in the room of the old Grammar School. Nothing could be better suited to the wants of the village than the present

school. The upper classes are accessible on suitable terms to the children of the neighbouring farmers, who are obtaining an excellent education. But it would be fatal to the continued efficiency of the school, on its present footing, to permit a life tenure for the master's office. Accordingly the difficulty has been evaded by appointing the vicar of the parish to be nominal head master, and this gentleman appoints a school-master, who, as his deputy, is of course removable at pleasure.* It happens that the vicar is *ex officio* a trustee, and that the arrangement is carried out with the full consent of the squire, who is the manager of the school. But it is easy to see that cases might arise in which this arrangement would prove most injurious. It is far better that the vicar should be at liberty to exercise his rightful influence as one of the trustees, than that he should be hampered with the nominal status of head master, and so in legal possession of the exclusive right to nominate the real teacher of the school.

At Guisely the income arising from the school property is about 60*l.* The school is described in the report of the Charity Commissioners (1827) as one in which free scholars were admitted, and in which Latin had once been taught. In 1841 a new school-room was built on the site of the old one, with the aid of a Treasury Grant. The school was placed in connection with the National Society, and has ever since received grants and annual inspection from the Privy Council. But the master having been appointed by the sole acting trustee, has a freehold office, and cannot be removed or controlled by the managers of the National School. They have been accustomed to hand over to him *en bloc* the whole of the Government grant, the fees of the children, and the sum derived from the endowment, and have not reserved a shilling for necessary expenses or even for insurance. The master has acquired a vested right to all these, he pays the pupil teachers, charges himself with all expenses, and disputes the right of the rector (who is both a trustee of the endowment and the principal manager of the Parochial School) to exercise the usual authority over its management. He has no free scholars, and there are none who enjoy any exceptional privileges under the endowment. The fact of the endowment simply serves to render the master irresponsible and irremoveable; but in all other respects its position is that of an ordinary National School. This is the only instance I have met with in which a school receiving annual grants from the Privy Council is in the hands of a master holding a freehold. But the mischief of the arrangement has been painfully evident in the past history of the parish; and I cannot doubt that the usefulness of the institution may be yet more seriously compromised by its continuance.

In another place I found that the endowment consisted of a rentcharge of 20*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* for the head master, and half that sum for an usher, and 2*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* for a third master "to teach the

* The school at Brough in Westmoreland is in a similar predicament. See my report on that place.

petty or young children." The founder in 1603 regarded these sums as sufficient; and had he contemplated the alteration in the value of money, would probably have bequeathed the estates themselves instead of the rental which they then yielded. The most valuable part of the property now is an excellent freehold schoolroom and dwelling-house, with an acre or more of very productive garden ground. On the walls of this schoolroom I read many familiar Yorkshire names, and I learned that this was once a famous school, frequented by the sons of the neighbouring squires. The room, however, is now disused. The school has ceased to exist. The clergyman of the parish is the nominal head master, and resides in the school-house, which is in fact the only house in the parish suitable for the parsonage. He has received the whole of the annual income for many years; but since 1861 he has appropriated his own share as head master as a subscription to the National School. The usher's 11*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* he gives to a curate, on condition that he spends a part of each day in giving instruction on the premises. It is true that there are only two scholars—the head master's own son and a private pupil—but in theory the usher is supposed to be ready to give Latin and Greek instruction gratuitously to all comers, and so to be fulfilling the conditions of the trust. The head master informed me that, but for the obligation connected with the Grammar School, he would not feel it necessary to have a curate at all. He is sensible of the awkwardness of his present position, which is in fact one of more anxiety than profit. Yet he could not resign his freehold as head master without surrendering a good house and garden, on which he has spent a considerable sum; and which, though useful as a parsonage, are the property not of the church but of the school. It is manifest that the whole sum is absolutely useless for purposes of education. So much of it as provides a house and a private tutor for the clergyman is really given to the church; and so much as is given to the National School is simply wasted; for the Parliamentary grant, and the fees of the children, added to a munificent subscription from the lord of the manor, provide amply for its maintenance.

In some cases the property of the school is still chargeable with an annuity paid to a former head master as the price of his retirement. In one famous school, now attended by 160 scholars, the number was reduced more than 20 years ago to six, and the school had lost its character and was threatened with extinction. The governing body, dreading the expense of legal proceedings, offered if the master would retire to secure to him a pension of 187*l.* 10*s.* per annum, which he still enjoys.

There is a small school in the Craven district, the statutes of which expressly provide, that the master shall not acquire a freehold in his office; a small house, however, was attached to the office and used as his residence. When the trustees dismissed the master for gross negligence, they found that they could not remove him from the house without an expensive suit at law. The difficulty was at last solved by the conviction of the man for a felony, and he is now serving a term of 18 months' imprison-

ment. When he is released, he will find the new master in possession of the house, and it will devolve upon him to commence proceedings for the ejection of his rival.

Testimony on this point.

There are several grammar schools in this district, the trustees of which openly attribute their inefficiency to the negligence or unfitness of the master; and express their regret at being unable to remove him. I am glad to know that the invidious and painful task of enumerating these cases, *nominatim*, is not demanded by any public considerations, and that they need not be specified in this report. But the cases are sufficiently numerous and grave to deserve the earnest attention of the Commissioners. Thus one gentleman says,—"All prevention will be of no avail, if the board have not "the power of dismissing the master. More evil results from the "head master being beyond control than from any other cause. "They may be good scholars, but bad teachers, not immoral men, "but indolent and careless."

The Revd. J. B. Landon, who has had great experience of the working of endowments in Yorkshire says,—"The mode of "appointing masters might be much improved; but the great evil "is the want of means of getting rid of them, when through age "or other causes they become inefficient, their pupils leave them, "and their office becomes a sinecure."

Another clergyman writing to me in reply to the question whether any plans were contemplated for the improvement of the endowed school in his parish says, "I am of opinion that nothing "can be done, with any comfort, until our master is bought out. "He is not qualified for the school we wish to establish, and "would not undertake it, having been his own master as well as "master of this school for many years. I fear it will be an ex-"pensive business to get quit of him."

There is in short a remarkable consensus of testimony from landholders, clergy, and even from the more enlightened of the head masters themselves, on two points; 1. That the virtual impossibility of removing the head masters tend greatly to diminish the interest felt by governing bodies in the right management of their trusts; 2. That it gives to an indolent man an excuse for neglecting his duty, and tends greatly to deteriorate and weaken the schools.

Remedies proposed.

The difficulties thus strongly and universally felt are not in the present state of the law easily remedied. In several schools in this district, York, Horton, Slaidburn, &c., the trustees have required the head master to sign an undertaking pledging him to quit his post at six months' notice, and reserving to themselves the right to dismiss with or without cause assigned. But unless this arrangement is expressly sanctioned in a new scheme by the Court of Chancery, it is an expedient of very doubtful legality, and it is therefore seldom attempted.*

* A very important decision on this point occurs in the history of the Royston Free Grammar School in this district. "Having elected a schoolmaster, the trustees obliged him to enter into a bond and agreement, stipulating that he should not have or claim a freehold in the school or estates, should quit at six months'

Powers of Charity Commissioners.

It is often supposed that the Charity Commission has a right to remove masters, and I find much misconception existing in country places respecting the powers of that body. But the Act of 1853 only empowers the Charity Commissioners to authorize the trustees to remove masters "for sufficient cause," and that power has very rarely been exercised, except in gross cases of immorality. But even this power is subject to very important limitations, for it is not competent to the Commission to initiate any proceedings. They can only act on the application of the trustees, and it often happens that when the grounds for removal are notoriously sufficient, the trustees are unwilling to apply.*

Power of removal when entrusted to trustees needs to be guarded.

Yet, in spite of the admitted evils of the present state of things, it seems clear that some forms of remedy would be worse than the disease. Constituted as some boards of trustees are, of narrow coteries, of tenant farmers, of small tradesmen, of men without education or public spirit, it would be cruel to permit schoolmasters to be exposed to their caprice. Indeed a reform in the constitution of trusts is a condition precedent to any useful enlargement of the powers of those bodies. A man of any distinction is not likely to surrender a college fellowship or a living to accept the mastership; if a small number of residents in a country town can at any time agree to dispossess him at three months' notice without assigning any reason. Some greater safeguard than is furnished by this plan seems to be needed, in order to secure the due independence of the head master. He must be protected from the effects of caprice, or of some temporary local dispute.

By appeal to some superior authority.

It has often been suggested to me that this would be most effectually done by giving to head masters in the event of their dismissal by trustees a right of an appeal to some authority, which while remote from parochial influences would act on general and fixed principles, and be the depository of such precedents and traditions as would effectually preclude an unfair decision.

Whether this appellate jurisdiction should be vested in the bishop of the diocese, or in the Charity Commission is a point on which I have found great diversity of opinion. But it seems to be generally admitted that if a body were in existence, which though like the Charity Commission in constitution, possessed a specially

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notice, and should not intermeddle with the estates. A petition having been presented under Sir Samuel Romilly's Act, the validity of the bond being brought into question, Lord Langdale, Master of the Rolls, said, 'That though it might be very proper that many of the regulations imposed by the trustees should be observed under their order and direction, yet that it was not proper to enforce them in this way by taking a bond from the schoolmaster. The trustees had exceeded their powers, though they had intended what was perfectly right; he could not therefore dismiss the petition, but must direct a reference to approve of a proper scheme for the management of the school.'"

"The bond in this case, not being taken for a corrupt purpose, may at law have been perfectly valid, for it was in itself much less objectionable than the general bond of resignation in the former; *in equity, however, it was invalid as being in excess of the duty of the trustees.*"

* See on this point the evidence of Mr. Hill, the Commissioner of Charities, and of Mr. Thomas Hare.

educational character, it would form a safer and more trustworthy referee than either. There are, indeed, some advantages in referring personal questions of this sort to an individual rather than a board. But the stronger sense of responsibility thus secured is probably more than outweighed by the wider experience and better knowledge of general principles, which would be possessed by a permanent educational board.

My own experience of bodies of trustees leads me, however, to think that in the great majority of cases there is little need even for this precaution. Where the trustees retain the right of dismissing the masters at six months' notice without assigning any cause, I have not once heard of a capricious or unjust use of their power. Indeed, an indolent acquiescence in a bad state of things is a far commoner vice than an over eagerness to promote reforms.

But, after all, the true measure of the necessity for these precautions is to be found in the exceptional cases. Although on ordinary occasions an appeal would not be needed, and causeless dismissal will be very rare, it is for the extraordinary case that legislation should provide. And this can only be done by some general rule permitting an appeal in all cases in which the head master desires to avail himself of it.

The fact that the practice of giving freeholds to head masters is not absolutely necessary in order to attract into the profession men of the highest educational rank, is well exemplified in this district; for it happens that in the three leading schools which I have already distinguished from the rest, and which are under the care of the most eminent men, the mastership is not a freehold. One of these gentlemen, Dr. Henderson, the able head of the Leeds Grammar School, who holds a strong opinion in favour of giving to the trustees the power of removing head masters, informs me that in Jersey the rule sanctioned by an order in council, in relation to the Royal Grammar School, of which he was the head master, requires the consent of two-thirds of the trustees to a vote of dismissal, and also obliges all who vote to be actually present. Otherwise the discretion of the trustees is left unfettered. In Dr. Henderson's opinion this precaution is quite sufficient for all practical purposes.

By a majority of two-thirds.

In the Charitable Trusts Act of 1860 there is an important provision* expressly designed to meet this difficulty in the smaller endowed schools. But grammar schools were out of tenderness to

* Tudor's Law on Charitable Trusts, p. 483.—"Every schoolmaster and mistress "appointed after the date of this Act, shall be removable from his or her office, after "reasonable notice by the trustees or persons acting in the administration of the "charity, as they shall think expedient in the interests thereof, so nevertheless that "the removal by virtue only of this provision of a master or mistress who would be "otherwise irremovable from his or her office, shall be determined on by all or a "majority of such trustees or administrators assembled at a meeting convened by due "notice, delivered or sent by the post to all such trustees or administrators who shall "have any known place of residence in Great Britain or Ireland, by the space of not "less than 28 days previously, for the special purpose of considering and determining "on the question of such removal, and of which intended meeting a notice shall also "be delivered or sent in like manner to the master or mistress by the same previous "space."

vested rights, specifically exempted from the operation of this clause. It may well be doubted whether the continuance of this exemption in any future law of Charitable Trusts will be either wise or expedient.

Under masters.

But although the testimony which I have collected concurs in recommending that trustees should have greater power to remove head masters, it is equally unanimous in deprecating the exercise of any such power in relation to under masters.

The mode of their appointment.

I find that of the 64 endowed schools which I have visited 31 have only one master; of the remainder there are two schools in which the vicar of the parish is nominally head master, but in which his substitute, though called second, is virtually the sole master. There are 15 in which the nomination of the assistants rests absolutely with the head master. In the other 16 schools, the under masters are all appointed by the trustees. When the under master or usher is specifically named in the will, he often holds a freehold office, and is as irremovable as the head master. The working of this arrangement is often most mischievous. One famous school in the district was for several years the scene of violent contentions between the head and second master. The dispute was kept up by angry pamphlets, by letters in the local newspapers, and even by appeals to the magistrates. The little society of the place became eagerly interested in the dispute, divided itself into two bands of zealous partizans, each bitterly hostile to one of the gentlemen who divided between them the responsibility of the school. The masters declined to communicate with each other, except in writing, and all the necessary intercourse between the two ends of the schoolroom was carried on by formal diplomatic notes, carefully worded with an eye to their possible appearance in a controversial pamphlet, or on the minute-book of the governors. It is scarcely necessary to add that these personal squabbles had the most unhappy effect on the school. Its *morale* was injured, its reputation declined, and the numbers were greatly diminished. Even now, long after the resignation of the second master has given peace to the school, it is very hard for it to recover public confidence, and it will, I fear, be long before the memory of past feuds will have ceased to exercise an injurious influence not only on the school, but on the entire community for whose improvement and elevation it was designed.

In another school in the district, the masterships are held by two clergymen, who have not been on speaking terms for 15 years. Each of these gentlemen took me privately aside to assure me that the other was not to be trusted, and that it was impossible to work harmoniously with him. The head master accounted for the ignorance of the upper forms, by complaining of the stupidity of the methods adopted in the lower classes, methods over which he, the head master, had no sort of control. The usher, on the other hand, assigned as a reason for the worthlessness of his own teaching, that it was of no use to prepare them for a course so absurd and useless as was pursued in the upper classes.

Such scandals as these are of course exceptional. But an evil may be very real, although it does not obtrude itself in so offensive a form as this before the public eye. And when there are two masters in a school, each of whom feels independent, and separately responsible to some external authority, such as that of the governors, the arrangement seems to me invariably to work ill. Gentlemen do not quarrel if they can help it, or cease to observe the ordinary courtesies of official life. But they may be wholly out of sympathy with each other, nevertheless. They may have different plans and separate interests, and be in every way unfit to co-operate in the management of a school. The examination of the schools has revealed to me many examples of a sort of mischief, which does not come under the cognizance of the governors. A new head master is appointed, he finds the school languid and desires to put new life into it. But the under masterships are filled by men who have been on the foundation for years, who are wedded to traditional methods, and who cannot easily be influenced in favour of any change. If their position was determinable by the head master they would feel it necessary to defer to him, to place themselves *en rapport* with him and his plans, and probably to give him valuable advice, as to the kind of experiments which it would be unsafe to try. Even if the head master had the power to remove them this power would be rarely exercised, for he would probably feel the value of every link which united the best part of his future to the past history of the school. But the fact that he possessed this power would have a salutary influence on his assistants, and on his own relation to them. It would oblige them to become his helpers and subordinates, whereas under the other system they are his rivals and stumbling-blocks. They adhere to methods which are out of harmony with those which a vigorous head master would like to adopt, and they stand on their right as foundation masters, whenever a difference of opinion arises. I do not know a more painful position for a man of right aims and high qualifications, than to find himself burdened with the assistance of a colleague who does not share his aims, and scarcely recognizes his authority. When this state of things exists, he soon begins to acquiesce in it as inevitable. The two or more departments become in practice so many separate schools. A school thus broken up into sections cannot be said to have any organization. It exists rather as a congeries of affiliated schools, than as one, and its unity is altogether destroyed.

Mischief of divided responsibility.

The forethought of some of the founders seems to have expressly provided against the evils of a divided rule. Thus at Sedbergh the nomination of the second master or sub-pædagogue is expressly assigned to the head master. In several other cases, *e.g.*, at Batley, Bingley, and Hipperholme the head master is by statute empowered to appoint his usher. At Doncaster the scheme recently adopted with signal success for the revival of the grammar school in that town, leaves the absolute nomination of all the five under masters to the head.

Assistants appointed by head masters.

Or with their consent.

In several other schools it is the practice to appoint all under masters "with the advice and consent of the head master." Thus at Almondbury the trustees have a power reserved to them to displace the usher, with the consent of the schoolmaster, upon a quarter's notice. At Halifax the trustees are bound by statute to proceed to the appointment and admission of an usher, "taking to them the master to judge of the sufficiency in learning and aptness of the usher."

A rule like this reduces the evil, but it does not remove it. A mere veto on the appointment of usher or assistants is not itself sufficient. The head master should choose his assistants. He alone should be responsible to the governors, and all his assistants should be responsible to him. And this is the course to which all experience and the evidence which I have collected seems to point. Thus Dr. Atlay, the vicar of Leeds, says:

"I am of opinion that the relation between the trustees and the head master of any school should be clear and defined, and that in the school he should be supreme and feel himself so. I would make him responsible for the entire discipline and control of the school; would leave the choice of assistant masters to him, giving him to understand that the funds of the school would bear only a certain charge upon them, which he must not exceed; and generally would make him feel that in all things reasonable he might reckon upon the cordial co-operation of the trustees."

At S. Peter's in York the governing body reserves to itself, as so many separate pieces of patronage, the nominations to the lower masterships. Even the preparatory teachers, the French, and drill masters are all appointed by the Dean and Chapter. But the practice possesses no advantages which justify its imitation. At Durham, where the capitular body is still more closely identified with the school than at York, the Dean and Chapter nominate the second master, who is on the foundation, but leave the appointment of all the other teachers entirely in the hands of the head master.

There is one singular case in which the head master's right of nominating his assistant happens to give him another power not contemplated by the founder. In Archbishop Holgate's statutes for the government of his three schools at Malton, Hemsworth, and York, he places the appointment of the head master in the hands of the Archbishop of York; but adds the further proviso, that if the second master is competent to succeed the head, the Archbishop must appoint him. Now, as the head master can choose his usher without consulting the patron, the effect of this arrangement is to place it in his power to nominate his own successor. Two of these schools are now placed under a new scheme; but in the third, Malton, the statutes are still in force, and there is nothing to prevent a head master who intends to resign from nominating as his assistant a person whom the Archbishop will be bound to appoint on the avoidance of the mastership. Indeed I am informed on good authority that instances have been known in the past history of the school of the actual transfer of the mastership from one incumbent to his successor for a pecuniary consideration.

Payment of assistants by head masters.

It is important to bear in mind that when the rights of the head master extend to the payment as well as to the selection of his assistants, the plan of leaving him absolutely uncontrolled does not always work well. In three or four of the small endowed schools I have found very worthless assistants, of whom one was a private pupil, reading with the head master, and therefore doing little in the school; another was a helpless cripple; and a third was so sullen and ignorant, that I doubt whether, even in the worst private school, he would have been received as usher at 20*l.* a year. And on inquiry I found that each of these men had been obtained at a mere nominal salary, and with a view to the private economy of the master who had appointed them.

Statutory conditions as to the election of head master.

In this district it happens that a large discretion is left to the trustees respecting the mode of determining the qualifications of the head master whom they are bound to appoint. In the great majority of the schools the trustees or patrons are left unhampered by any technical restriction, beyond the general obligation to elect a properly qualified man to the best of their ability. Thus the fitting candidate for the mastership is variously described in different statutes as "a sufficient schoolmaster," "a learned and painful schoolmaster," "one who hath well profited in learning," "a pious, learned, and sober man," "a grave man, of good life and conversation, a true member of the Church of England as by law established, a good grammar scholar, and an expert writer and arithmetician," "one substantially instructed and free from all points and tenets of popery," or "one skilled in Latin and Greek." There are, however, some examples of a more specific direction to the electors, and to these I may most appropriately refer in this place.

An Oxford or Cambridge man.

In several statutes it is expressly prescribed that the head master shall be a graduate of Oxford or of Cambridge. Thus at Haworth, the founder, Christopher Scott, bequeaths his estates for the maintenance of a schoolmaster, "able and willing to teach his scholars Greek and Latin, in such a commendable manner that they might be fit for either of the Universities of Oxford or Cambridge; and he would have such a one that was a graduate at the least, or bachelor, if not a master of arts."

At Pontefract, he must have taken the degree of M.A. or LL.B. in Oxford or Cambridge, and also shall have had ordination as a priest or deacon of the Church of England. At Ripon, he must be a graduate of Oxford or Cambridge. The trustees of Fishlake are bound to elect a graduate in one of the Universities of Oxford or Cambridge; while Mr. Collingwood, the testator, who founded the school at High Bentham, and who endowed two masterships there with the annual stipends of 30*l.* and 20*l.* respectively "for their pains," provided his successors with not a little embarrassment, when he prescribed that no master shall be admitted who has not been educated "to the rules of Oxford or Cambridge," and adds that by this stipulation he means to "exclude the pretensions of all who may be of a narrower education."

A graduate simply.

But in many other cases the expression of the founder's will is less precise. It requires a graduate, but says nothing about the university at which he shall have graduated. Thus at Tadcaster, the master shall have a degree "in the university, that of A.B. at least." At Almondbury, he must be a single man, who has taken the degree of M.A. or B.A.: at Bradford, a discreet and fit person, who should have taken the degree of M.A. The Halifax trust describes the head master as "a meet man, learned and cunning, which hath been a student in one of the universities in England for the space of five years at the least."

At Hipperholme, he is to be a learned and sufficient person, being a graduate of the degree of B.A. at least, of one of the universities: at Sheffield a M.A., or at least a B.A.: at Leeds, a "graduate of one of the Universities": at Otley, one who has taken the degree of B.A. or M.A.: at Wakefield, "a proper person of the degree of M.A."

In holy orders.

In several schools there is an express condition that the masters shall be in priest's or deacon's orders. Thus at Skipton, which was founded, *temp.* Edward VI., the master is to be a chaplain or priest, and is to be present at the parish church of Skipton every Lord's Day and festival, and perform service in the church on Sundays and festivals, and three days every week before seven in the morning.

At Kirkby, the statute, *temp.* Philip & Mary, instructs the governors to appoint, as master, "virum honestum, irreprehensi-
" bilem in ordine sacerdotali constitutum, *non religiosum*, nullibi
" saltem cum curâ animarum beneficiatum, neque officiatum,
" doctum, et in arte grammaticâ peritum."

At Snaith there is a long standing usage, and at Ilkley an express stipulation that the vicar shall be the head master, and shall appoint an usher.

At Arncliffe, a rentcharge of 10*l.* is devised to the curate for teaching poor men's children; and a subsequent bequest for the same school describes the teacher as a "M.A., or some other able and well qualified scholar, who should preach the word of God, catechise and instruct the younger sort of people on the Sabbath days, and also on week days instruct the children in the rudiments of grammar and other learning."

At Rawdon, which is now a merely elementary school, and which is very poorly endowed with a rentcharge of 10*l.*, it is recited in the trust deed that "the curate of the parish should have the preference of being appointed schoolmaster of the said school, in case he would accept thereof and behave himself well in the said employment."

Robert Hungate, the founder of the school and hospital at Sherburn, describes the head master as "an able schoolmaster,
" being a preaching minister, to instruct the orphans in the art
" of grammar, and to catechise them in the grounds of the
" Christian religion twice a week, and to preach once every
" Sabbath in the parish church."

The will of John Armistead who endowed the school at Horton in Ribblesdale, instructs the trustees to elect "a fit and able

"schoolmaster, such schoolmaster to be a single unmarried man "in priest's or deacon's orders."

The requirement that the head master shall be unmarried is found in the statutes of several other foundation schools. The founder of the Keighley Free School leaves estates for the maintenance of a "sufficient unmarried and qualified schoolmaster," and proceeds to direct that "if the schoolmaster for the time being "should marry or neglect to perform his duty, the feoffees, or the "major part of them should suspend him from the receipt of the "rents, and choose another person in his stead." The founder of the Burnsall school stipulates that the master shall be "unmarried and without children." The master at Almondbury is to be "a single man." Unmarried.

It may be doubted whether the provision which directs that the trustees shall elect an unmarried man to the office implies that, in the event of his marriage, he must *ipso facto* be dismissed. I have indeed found in one will for the establishment of a school no longer in existence the express provision that the schoolmaster shall be a bachelor at the time of his nomination and election, and so remain during the time that he shall continue in the capacity of schoolmaster. But, as a rule, this provision is liberally interpreted by school managers.

At Keighley, notwithstanding the imperative terms of the statute just quoted, the head master is married; but in another case the master ruefully showed me a copy of the statutes, and told me that he was withheld from carrying out his own wishes in regard to marriage from the fear that he would lose his freehold rights, and perhaps be ejected from his post.

As to the working of these restrictions little need be said; even those conditions which at the time appeared most reasonable and wise are often found to hamper the discretion of the trustees in an inconvenient way. The regulation that the head master should be a graduate of Oxford or Cambridge is, in the case of the larger grammar schools, still in harmony with the rule which a wise body of trustees, even if unfettered, would desire to carry out. But it is quite conceivable that a graduate of Dublin, of London, of Durham, or of one of the Scottish universities might often be found possessing all needful qualifications for the mastership, and in such a case an injury is done to the school by the rule which excludes him. Effect of these restrictions.

The requirement that the head master should be a graduate is also found in some cases to be attended with great practical inconvenience. The district contains many examples in which, notwithstanding the clearness of the founder's language, this condition is no longer fulfilled. There are many others in which it would be greatly for the advantage of the school to dispense with it. The desire to comply with the letter of the law on this point occasionally leads to evasion. In the case of one grammar school in the West Riding the trustees had great reason on the last avoidance of the head-mastership to desire a total change. The

school was low in numbers and in repute. Among the applicants for the vacant post was one who evinced peculiar qualifications, and was regarded as the fittest man. He brought the strongest evidence of his zeal and ability as a teacher. He had received an excellent education, had spent some time at the University, but had never graduated. The statutes required that the head master should be a M.A. In this dilemma the trustees bethought themselves of the Archbishop of Canterbury, and of his special power to confer degrees. They at once placed themselves in communication with his grace, the candidate made a hasty journey to London, the necessary forms were soon arranged, and on the eve of the day on which the election was to take place, he returned as a Lambeth M.A., and was elected accordingly. I do not quote this circumstance with a view to cast discredit on any of the parties concerned. The appointment has been more than justified by the very remarkable success of the school, which is now full and flourishing. But it is obvious that but for the kindly interposition of the Lord Primate, this school would have been deprived of the services of a very able man, and in all probability would never have attained its present high state of efficiency.

Of the provision which forbids the schoolmaster to be a married man I need not say anything. It is superfluous to point out that it is as adverse to the spirit of modern society as to the interests of the school. In some cases it is openly disregarded; in others it is evaded, by the practice of electing an unmarried man and afterwards permitting his marriage *sub silentio.*

Much more serious questions are raised by the requirement that the head master should be in priest's or deacon's orders. In some instances it is found simply impossible to carry this out. Thus John Brannard, 1717, in bequeathing a fixed annual sum of 80*l.* chargeable on his freehold and copyhold land in Slaidburn to endow a school in that village "so long as monarchy and pro-" testant episcopacy shall remain in the land," gives 50*l.* to the head master, whom he requires to be in priest's orders, and 30*l.* to the usher, whom he requires to be in priest's or deacon's orders. Here a compromise has been attempted, which is very unsatisfactory. There is a second master, who for 14 years has done most of the real work of the school, and who is not in orders, since it is clear that no clergyman would accept the post at such a stipend. Now the trustees, though obliged to acquiesce in a departure from the founder's will as far as the second master is concerned, object to any deviation from it in the case of the head master. The rector insists strongly that there ought always to be a clergyman in this post. The reason is obvious; the head mastership is always held by the curate of the parish, and the 50*l.* forms part of his stipend. The endowment of the school thus furnishes a convenient subsidy for the church, inasmuch as it facilitates the engagement of a curate for a much smaller sum than would ordinarily be paid. But the arrangement is a bad one for the interests both of church and school; for the good schoolmaster might be a bad curate, or *vice versâ,* and there would in either case be a

conflict of duty which would be especially embarrassing to the gentleman, who is both rector of the parish and chairman of the trustees. And since there is no demand in the parish for any other education than that of an elementary school, the duties are such as are wholly unsuited for a clergyman. Hence no man of any ability or ambition will retain the post long; there is a constant liability to change, and the school is injured by the succession of varied and contradictory plans.

In Horton-in-Ribblesdale the same arrangement prevails, the head master is by statute required to be a clergyman, and is practically the curate of the parish. I am bound to say that here the arrangement works better, and that the school is skilfully and faithfully taught.

Yet at both of these places the schools are elementary. In neither is there any demand for higher instruction. In both there is great waste of power. In each there are in fact two small schools almost independent of each other, the upper being under the care of a clergyman, the lower under that of an elderly man who has done all the elementary work for many years on a small stipend. A clergyman who has other duties in the parish is not likely to do the work even of the upper school better than a properly qualified master with a certificate. As to the lower class, a pupil teacher would be much more useful and much better adapted to the work required.

Here, then, are four classes of limitation to which the choice of the trustees is subject in the exercise of their duties:—The restriction, 1, to an Oxford or Cambridge man; 2, to a University graduate; 3, to a clergyman; and 4, to an unmarried man.

I cannot doubt that the statutes which fetter the discretion of the trustees in all these respects ought to be repealed. They are mischievous, even if they are disregarded; for the habitual evasion of a law on any pretext whatever is always demoralizing to those who connive at it: but they are much more mischievous when obeyed. There are, in short, three good reasons for the removal of these restrictions:—that to abide by them is already found in many cases to be absolutely impracticable; that even when practicable it is often in the highest degree inexpedient; and, that as our systems of education improve it will probably become daily less practicable and less expedient.

Fees.

There is no subject of greater importance, or one to which my attention has oftener been drawn in the course of this inquiry, than that of fees to be paid in endowed schools. This topic is the fruitful source of angry local discussions and of serious practical difficulties. The trustees in many places are puzzled to know how to act. Most of the endowed foundations are by statute and by old custom *free schools;* but in our day the managers of these schools find themselves confronted with a dilemma. To demand

payment is to court unpopularity and threats of legal proceedings; to leave the school free is practically to exclude from it all those who want the education which it was designed to give. It will be necessary here—1. To collect the evidence respecting the founder's intention and long established usage on the subject of fees; 2. To show how far in practice there has been a departure from the letter of the statutes; and, 3. To inquire what in the altered circumstances of modern society seems the wisest and best course to adopt.

What is meant by a "Free School."

It has been often said that by a free grammar school, "*schola libera,*" we are not to understand a school in which the instruction is gratuitous: but one free from ecclesiastical supervision; or one in which a free or liberal education is given, the comprehensive training and culture of a gentleman, *literæ humaniores*, as distinguished from the narrow learning which suffices for mere utilitarian purposes. However true this may be in some cases, a considerable number of the founders of Yorkshire schools have intentionally placed it out of the power of their descendants to put this exclusive interpretation on their wills. A few instances of this will suffice.

Examples of Statutes in which "free" means "gratuitous."

At Keighley the testator orders "that the master shall instruct "in the English, Latin, and Greek languages *free and without* "*any reward or stipend whatever.*" At Guisborough, "The "master shall *teach freely* all scholars coming to the school gram- "mar, honest manners, and godly living. He shall keep a register "of the names of all his scholars, with the day and year of their "first coming and admission, taking therefore of *every scholar* 4*d.*, "*and never after anything of duty,* but if any of the parents or "friends of the scholars give him anything of their free will he "may take it thankfully."

The statutes of the Heath grammar school are equally explicit. "For the admission and teaching of every scholar of the town and "parish of Halifax, *of what condition soever, nothing shall be demanded.*"

Archbishop Holgate, the munificent founder of three schools, which still exist in this county, ordained the same rule as applicable to them all. "That the master shall teach grammar and other "knowledges and godly learning in the same school freely with- "out taking any stipend, wages, or other exaction of the scholars, "or of any of them, resorting to learn and to know the same."

The will of Matthew Broadley, who endowed the Hipperholme School, appoints the master of the free school "to educate and "instruct in grammar and other literature and learning the scholars "and children of the township and constablery of Hipperholme "cum Brighouse only, *gratis, and without any other reward and* "*allowance.*" In another it is said the master shall be one "*qui* "*pueros ipsius parochiæ et alios ad se confluentes gratis docebit.*" Lady Lumley, in endowing the school at Thornton, orders "that "the master shall teach the children of the inhabitants of Sin- "mington and Thornton *free of expense.*" At Ilkley it is provided

by the deed of trust "that all the male children within the parish "shall be taught and instructed gratis."

In the indenture by which the trust of the Barnsley grammar school was constituted in 1660, the testator is still more explicit as to the gratuitous character of the instruction which he wished to endow. The estate is devised "for the maintenance of a master "and of an usher, or of the master only, as by the judgment of "the feoffees should be thought fit, in full satisfaction of his or "their salary for teaching and instructing all such children as "should come to the school to be taught that should be born "within the towns and townships of Barnsley, Dodworth, and "Keresforth Hill, whose parents should not be accounted to be "worth the sum of 200*l.* in lands or debtless goods, *not demanding "any penny of them or their parents* until such children should be "made fit for some university, or disposed of otherwise by their "friends and parents in the commonwealth. And the trustees "should have a care that the poorer sort of children should be "as well taught at the school as the richer sort until they should "be sent to some university or disposed of otherwise by the friends "and parents."

At Tadcaster "the master is to be skilful in grammar, and "teach freely the children of the parish of Tadcaster, or of any "other of the country coming to him, without exacting anything "from their instruction above their voluntary benevolence or the "liberality of their parents or friends."

One of the early benefactors to the Leeds grammar school says, "that the school shall be free for ever to all such as shall repair "thereto, without taking any money more or less for teaching "the children, saving of 1*d.* for every scholar to enter his name in "the master's book, *if the scholar have a penny*, and if not to enter "and continue free without any payment."

This freedom sometimes subject to local limitation.

It would be very easy to multiply examples showing what is the customary interpretation of the word "free" as applied to a grammar school. The word may also have conveyed another significance, but it certainly seems to have had the invariable meaning of gratuitous. There is a frequent local limitation, no doubt. In the majority of places the preference is given to the children of a particular town or parish, sometimes to founder's kin, but this freedom is often expressly extended to all comers. Thus at Haworth, Giggleswick, Hemsworth, Kirby-in-Malhamdale, Sedbergh, and Skipton the freedom is absolutely unlimited; no preference is given to inhabitants, and all applicants have an equal right to claim the benefit of the foundation without payment.

But not always.

Yet fees are generally charged.

Yet it is a notable fact that throughout the entire district these provisions are more or less systematically violated. It may be said generally that under some pretext or other, fees are now almost invariably charged. There is scarcely a school in the district which has not long ago either ceased to be a grammar school or ceased to be free. It is worth while to dwell briefly on the history of this change.

On the ground that the endowment is for Latin and Greek only, not English.

In the face of ordinances so definite and precise as those which have been quoted, trustees have apparently been very sensible of the difficulty attendant upon the imposition of fees. They have accordingly resorted to various pretexts to justify this course. Among them the commonest is to assume, that though the endowment was intended to furnish gratuitous instruction in Latin and Greek, it provided for nothing else, so that reading, writing and arithmetic are extras and may lawfully be charged. "I am here" said a master to me "to teach Latin and Greek; if parents want "their boys to learn anything else they must pay for it." It is true that in this case no boys were learning either language, and that the work for which the endowment provided was not done. Nevertheless the words of the statute were pointed to as expressly sanctioning the arrangement.* The fees paid by the boys were for the English education which they did receive. The revenue bequeathed by the founder was for that education which they did not receive. It served the purpose of a retaining fee merely, binding the master to teach the classics if any one in the village should happen to demand it.

Hence the system of separate charges for separate subjects.

Out of this theory has grown the habit of making special charges for particular subjects. In the better grammar schools French, German, and drawing are generally "extras" and the charges for these subjects often amount to more than the regular quarterage. But even in schools which retain the name of free, graduated payments are often insisted on. Thus, at the Keighley grammar school there is a tariff of charges sanctioned by the trustees and painted up conspicuously in the school in order to secure its continued observance. It specifies that the boys shall pay 2*s.* 6*d.* per quarter for reading, writing, and arithmetic; an additional 2*s.* 6*d.* per quarter for ornamental writing, geography, and composition; a further sum of 2*s.* 6*d.* per quarter for mathematics and book-keeping; and 3*s.* extra for drawing and history, so that the maximum sum to be paid is 10*s.* 6*d.* per quarter. Yet in this school the trustees believe that they are adhering to the letter of the founder's will, and opening their school for gratuitous education in Latin and Greek.

At Heptonstall the boys enter the English department as non-classical scholars, and while they remain in it they pay 10*s.* 6*d.* per quarter. But when they are sufficiently advanced to learn Latin, the fee is reduced and they pay 5*s.* 6*d.* per quarter, the endowment being supposed to remunerate the higher or Latin teacher.

At the Heath grammar school, Halifax, the statutes expressly provide that grammar, and other literature and learning shall be free. Yet 4*l.* 4*s.* and 6*l.* 6*s.* per annum according to age are

* The well-known ruling of Lord Eldon is constantly quoted to justify this. In the case of the Leeds Grammar School (Attorney-General *v.* Whiteley) the Court refused to allow part of the fund to be applied to the maintenance of masters for French and German, though it was urged that instruction in these subjects would be more generally useful. "It is not the business of the court to determine what will be most useful; its business is to determine what is the intention of the donor."

charged, ostensibly for English and mathematics, with extra payment for French, the assumption being that classics are free. At Bingley there is a free school, but 1*l.* 10*s.* is charged even to foundation scholars on the plea that they receive other instruction, and 2*l.* 2*s.* per annum extra are charged for French and German. At Batley foundationers pay 2*l.* 2*s.* per annum and non-foundationers from 4*l.* 4*s.* to 6*l.* 6*s.*

Working of this plan.

Few arrangements can be worse than that which makes a special appeal to the pocket of the parent, at each stage of the child's progress. I constantly meet with examples of promising scholars, to whom the teacher would like to give instruction in French, for instance, but who are prevented from joining the class by the refusal of the parent to pay. It quite as often happens that an ambitious father wishes to pay the higher fee, and to place his child in a French class before he is qualified to begin the study, and when the numbers are low and the salary of the teacher depends on the number of his pupils, it is a great temptation to a master to admit an unsuitable scholar rather than to reject the fee.

Specially mischievous in the humbler schools.

The plan of regarding the school as a shop in which the parent may buy whatever kind of instruction he asks for, and in such quantities as he chooses, is most injurious even in the best schools where the extra subjects are those on which it is not unreasonable to suppose that a parent's discretion may be left open. But it takes its most mischievous form in the humbler schools, where reading is taught at one fee, writing at another, arithmetic at a higher, and where those who advance beyond the rule of three pay highest of all. I may give several examples of the way in which these payments are graduated.

Examples of this.

At Normanton the scale of charges is 4*s.* per quarter for reading, 3*s.* per quarter for writing, 2*s.* per quarter for arithmetic. At Kirby in Malham there is a weekly payment of 2*d.*, 3*d.*, and 4*d.*, according to what the children learn. At Threshfield, reading is understood to be taught freely, and extra payments are made for writing. At Wortley the payments range from 6*d.* per week to 1*s.*, according to what is learned. The school at Rastrick was expressly established as a free school for elementary instruction, but extra charges are made for all who go beyond the elements of arithmetic. At Arksey the payments are 6*d.*, 4*d.* and 3*d.*, according to subjects. At Swillington the children pay 2*s.* per quarter for reading; 4*s.* for reading and writing; and 6*s.* per quarter for reading, writing and arithmetic. At Dent the charges are 2*s.* 6*d.* per quarter for reading: 4*s.* per quarter for reading and writing; 6*s.* per quarter for reading, writing, and arithmetic as far as rule of three, and beyond rule of three 7*s.* 6*d.* per quarter. At Thornton 2*d.* weekly for reading; 3*d.* for reading and writing; 4*d.* for reading, writing and arithmetic; and 6*d.* for reading, writing, arithmetic, history and geography.

Effects on the organization of the schools,

The absurdest results follow from such arrangements as these. In one case I have seen a class of children including some of nine or ten years of age, painfully employed in reading all day, and

wholly unable to use a pencil or a pen, because their parents did not choose to pay the writing fee. In another there are children who reach a still greater age, without ever receiving an exercise in arithmetic, for a similar reason. In another a boy was shown to me who having gone as far as the rule of three was sent back to the lower rules, until he brought the extra 1*s.* 6*d.* per quarter, which was paid for higher teaching. In this particular case the process was so salutary, that there was no reason to regret the rule which happened to enforce it: but had the boy's progress been real the mischief of thus arresting it would have been very serious. Not unfrequently, when questioning the highest class of a school on geography, on history, or on grammar, I have noticed a number of children preserve a dead silence, and on inquiring further, have learned that these were the pupils who did not pay for the particular subject, and therefore did not learn it.

It is almost superfluous to point out the practical mischief of this plan. It destroys the organization and the unity of the school. It cuts up the classes into little sections, which do not in any way represent gradations of attainment or capacity among the scholars. It causes a boy's place in the school no longer to be determined by the teacher, but by the caprice, or perhaps the poverty of his parents. It introduces among the children distinctions of rank and questions about money which should be kept wholly out of sight. And it not only weakens the authority of the teacher over the scheme of instruction, but it degrades his office. He ceases to be the director of the general education of his pupil and becomes a mere trader, supplying at the bidding of the parents just the particular wares for which there happens to be a demand.

The cockpenny.

There is a curious usage still prevalent in the north of this district, by which a sum of money called a cock penny is paid to the head master on Shrove Tuesday, not as a school fee, but as a voluntary personal payment or perquisite. It appears that Shrovetide was once the season for throwing at cocks, and that the diversion of cock-fighting was part of the annual routine of several grammar schools in Lancashire, Westmoreland, and the adjacent parts of Yorkshire. The playground was the place of this diversion, and the head master was accustomed to furnish the cocks, to preside over the sport and to give a little entertainment to the boys and their parents afterwards.* For this he was accustomed to receive a small gratuity, called the cock penny. This usage has in the course of years been transformed at Sedbergh into the form of a fee of one guinea for the head master and

* For further illustrations of this singular usage, see Brockett's Glossary of North Country words. Carlisle's endowed Charities, pp. 633 and 676. Fearon's Endowed Charities, p. 58, and the Report of the Charity Commissioners on Sedbergh School, vol. xvii. p. 777.

"A nick and a nock
A hen and a cock
And a penny for my master."
— *Old Song.*

10*s.* 6*d.* for the usher, paid on Shrove Tuesday; although it is needless to say that the poor boys have ceased to receive any sport from their masters as an equivalent. An attempt was made by a former head master to fix the payment at 5*l.* per annum, notwithstanding the wealth of the school, and the absolute freedom of instruction which the statutes prescribe. This attempt was abandoned; but I call attention to the matter in order to show that the obsolete usage of cock-fighting is at this moment the pretext for charging a fee of a guinea and a half in this school, and that in other free schools a similar rule prevails.

I have no doubt that the imposition of fees on this or any other grounds is contrary both to the spirit and the letter of the founder's will. It cannot be presumed that the "Latin and Greek tongues," "and good literature," "grammar and other knowledge and "Godly learning," was ever meant to exclude the arts of reading and writing. No one who has studied the wills and ordinances, by which the grammar schools were established, can entertain any reasonable doubt that the terms in which the instruction was described were inclusive, and were intended to comprehend the best and soundest education which was known at the time. If the master was to give to his scholars freely the best he had; *a fortiori* he was not to leave them ignorant of those humbler rudiments without which the grammar of an ancient language would be unintelligible and any attempt to teach it utterly futile. If any confirmation of this view were wanting, it would be found in the conversations I have had with old people, who in their childhood had been educated at the various schools, and who have favoured me with their own recollections on this point. They speak of the imposition of fees as a modern innovation. They describe themselves as having learned to read and write and cast accounts, as well as to work Latin exercises. Thus the chairman of the trustees at Bradford was explaining to me at a meeting of the board, that though a free grammar school, it had been found necessary of late years to engage a third master to teach English and arithmetic, and that on this account a quarterly fee of 1*l.* 1*s.* was charged even to the scholars who had the rights of foundationers. Yet this gentleman in reply to my questions informed me that when he was at the school many years ago no such payments were exacted, although there were then as now three masters. He assured me, moreover, that English and arithmetic were taught in his day. Similar testimony was given to me in many places. The extension of the curriculum of instruction is the ostensible reason for the imposition of new fees. But I can find little or no evidence of such an extension in the humbler grammar schools. Indeed, as I shall have occasion to show hereafter, the decline of Latin and Greek learning in such schools appears to me wholly uncompensated by the better teaching of anything else. It is difficult to suppose that there was ever a time in which elementary instruction was lower in quality or narrower in its range than in some of those schools in which separate charges are now made for reading, writing and arithmetic.

These payments contrary to the founder's intentions.

It is thus apparent, 1. That the imposition of fees to the extent to which it is now common is a modern innovation, and clearly opposed both to the spirit and to the letter of the founder's will. 2. That the desire to make a compromise, and to keep up a show of obedience to the statutes has led managers into the adoption of a system peculiarly mischievous, viz., that of making separate charges for separate subjects of instruction.

Yet it is expedient to enforce payments.

Nevertheless all testimony and all experience combine in this district to show that it is wise and expedient to require payments from parents, whether the statutes permit it or not. This has been a subject of special inquiry with me. Whenever I have found free scholars, I have asked how the attendance of such scholars compared in point of punctuality with that of pay scholars; whether the privilege of free instruction was generally obtained by the poorest, and was appreciated by the parents, and whether such parents took the same pains as others to co-operate with the master in the instruction of their sons. The answers to these questions has been uniformly unsatisfactory. It will not be necessary to mention special instances, but teachers are unanimous on the subject, and clergy and trustees who have had experience in these matters concur almost as readily in deprecating the extension of the free system. Parents even in the poorest classes do not value education which costs nothing. They are encouraged in the notion that the "quality" and the clergy have some interests of their own to serve in gathering the children together, and that a favour is conferred on somebody when the child is sent to a free school.* They lose the sense of their own parental responsibility, and are far less disposed than other parents to help the teachers by the enforcement of regular attendance, or by the kindly supervision of home lessons.

Influence of the system of Parliamentary grants.

The Committee of Council of Education has by its administration familiarized the poor with the duty of contributing towards the cost of the education of their children. No grant is made by the Government to an absolutely free school, but only in support of schools already partially sustained by local subscriptions and by parents' contributions. And it is because the aid thus granted has

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* One gentleman who has had great experience writes: "Provision for instruction absolutely free, I believe to be, in most cases, worse than useless. The cases in which such free instruction is desirable, as *e.g.* those of orphans, are exceptional. As a general rule I believe free instruction is valued very much at what it costs—that is nothing. Parents who, from their own defective education, have no better standard to judge by, are apt to estimate the instruction given to their children very much according to the price they have to pay for it." Another gentleman says, "I have never found free instruction valued at all, either in national schools or elsewhere." Major Stapylton, a large landholder, who takes great interest in the condition of his tenants, writes to me, "As a general rule I do not approve of free education unless it is compulsory, as I find that the parents value it less and care less about making the attendance of their children regular: it is, however, sometimes required, and my plan, which answers well in those villages in which I am the sole proprietor, is to fix a certain tariff to be paid by each child, and to discharge every cottager who does not send his children to school, without a valid reason satisfactory to the committee for his or her absence. Those who plead poverty are to make their claims known to the committee, and if found reasonable those children are placed on my private list and paid for by me. Thus the master has every inducement to increase the number of pupils, and the cottager no excuse for not sending them."

not superseded other exertions, nor even initiated them, but merely strengthened them when made, that the system has been so beneficial and so popular. It is the universal experience of managers of the schools which are under State inspection, that a moderate raising of fees in districts, when the state of the labour market justifies the experiment, always tends to increase the regularity of the scholars' attendance, the self respect of the parents, and their sympathy with the work which is going on in the school.

Improved wages and general prosperity.

In the West Riding the extension of the system of parliamentary grants has been during the last few years coincident with social changes of great importance. The wages of the operative class have greatly increased. The improved earnings of the factory-workers, have exercised a reflex action on those of the agricultural labourers in the district; and it cannot now be said that any important section of the permanent population of the county is in a position to need an absolutely gratuitous supply of education. The increased activity of trade, and the keenness and shrewdness which it has developed have also gone far to cultivate among the sturdy Yorkshiremen stronger feelings of personal independence, and a disposition to value everything at what it costs. There are not a few of the classes for whom the free schools were designed, who disdain the notion of gratuitous education, and who now refuse to avail themselves of what they contemptuously call a charity school. All who are familiar with the elementary schools know how often a mechanic or a small tradesman as he gets on in the world, withdraws his children from the public school to some small and pretentious private academy, not because he thinks they will be better taught, but because he fancies it more respectable to pay 1*s.* a week or 10*s.* 6*d.* per quarter than to send his boy to a "three-penny school." In many places where the trustees are honestly desirous to adhere to the intentions of the founders, and to keep up the statutory number of free scholars, it is found impossible to fill up that number.

Social distinctions more marked than of old.

And year by year class distinctions are becoming more and more strongly marked. It is not only the distance which divides the poor from the rich, which is daily increased, but each stratum of society seems to cleave off from those above and below it more readily than of old. In the rural districts of Craven where the "statesmen" or small freeholders retain their primitive habits, there is less difficulty on social grounds. The son of the landholder works in school side by side with the child of the labourer without any sense of degradation. But in the great towns and their vicinity the divisions of classes are far more strongly marked. Here the factory operatives form a class socially quite distinct from all above them: then come the retail tradesman and the clerk, then the small manufacturer and professional man, and then the highest class,—not an aristocracy, it is true, but a plutocracy consisting of men of enormous wealth, who consort with the members of the higher professions, and who, conscious of the newness of their origin, are restlessly eager to reach after alliances with the landed gentry, with parliament, with the magistracy, or, in short, with something

in the world which possesses traditions and a prospect of permanence.

Fusion of classes in schools now hopeless.

Throughout the West Riding, the children belonging to this last class, as well as those of the richer gentry, are habitually sent to distant schools. Locomotion is now so easy, that practically, Rugby or Westminster is as accessible to the son of a Yorkshire squire, as Leeds or York. In fact, the more distant place of education seems to be invariably preferred. It is the object of the father, as a rule, to withdraw his son from local associations, and to take him as far as possible from the sons of his own neighbours and dependants. The children of the landed and moneyed aristocracy may therefore be completely left out of view, so far as this local inquiry is concerned, for they are with few exceptions educated out of the county.

The scale of fees must determine the class of scholars.

It seems obvious, since fusion of classes is practically impossible, and is becoming more and more so, that it is the duty of all who are interested in an endowed school, to ask themselves once for all, for what class is it designed? and to lay out their plans accordingly. To say that the founder designed it for all classes may be true, but it is not relevant. * All classes will not come. And it is found in practice that the one thing which determines the class of scholars is the scale of fees. If there are no fees the school is either filled by the very poor, or it languishes altogether. If the fees are fixed low, at the rate usually paid in a national school, the school will be attended by children of the national school class; and the higher is the scale of fees, the higher is the grade of society from which the scholars come.

It is through losing sight of this, and at the same time through an honest desire to keep as near to the principles of the old foundation as possible, that so many of the grammar schools are practically useful neither to the one class or the other. There is on the part of many trustees a praiseworthy wish to keep down the fees, and on the part of the local public a tendency to resist any attempt to increase them. This often embarrasses very seriously the action of those who seek to improve the school. One or two examples of this will serve to illustrate my general experience on this point.

Examples: Keighley Grammar school.

The school at Keighley has already been referred to. It is under the management of a board composed entirely of local residents. Nothing can be clearer than the phraseology of the founder's will, which I have already quoted, on the subject of fees; for they are peremptorily prohibited. Yet the practice of charg-

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* Speaking of the Atherstone Free Grammar School, Lord Brougham, delivering a judgment as Chancellor, observed, "To such defects in old institutions I trace the "melancholy result which meets us in every part of the country, when we can "hardly open our eyes without seeing fine endowments wholly perverted from their "original uses, and supporting, not masters to teach freely all who desire education "and have not the means of obtaining it, and whom the pious bounty of founders "intended to help, but masters, who make a large profit by taking wealthy pupils, and "discourage their humbler countrymen from sending free scholars, lest such an "association should produce displeasure to the more refined pupils and their male and "female relations."

ing a quarterage came in by degrees. The master, anxious to secure for his school a character clearly distinguishable from the national school, charged a fee of 10*s.* 6*d.* per quarter. An indignation meeting was held in the town, violent speeches were made, the old statutes were quoted, and resolutions were carried pledging the meeting to maintain its character as a free school. The conduct of the master in seeking to attract the sons of gentlemen and to keep out the children of the poor, in making the boys wear college caps, and in otherwise aiming at a higher social standing for his school, was vehemently denounced. One speaker declared his intention to send his own boy to the school without a fee, in order to try whether the master would fulfil the terms of the statute, and teach English, Greek and Latin for nothing.* Others contended that the object of the school was to place a good classical education within the reach of the poorest child, and vowed that this object should be carried out, if necessary, by an appeal to the law. At length a compromise was effected, a low scale of charges was fixed upon (see ante, p. 142), the majority of the trustees set it up conspicuously in the school, and defied to the master exceed it. This scale assumes that instruction in the learned languages is gratuitous, and makes small charges for everything else.

Dispute about fees.

Now here was a very honest and resolute attempt to carry out the founder's intentions. And I am bound to say, that in no town have I found so many intelligent men, who, in the belief that all classes have a right to the highest education, have determined that the poor of their town, at least, shall not be robbed of that right. One cannot help sympathizing with their wishes and admiring their zeal. But it is instructive to look at the results of their policy. My visit was paid about two years after this settlement was effected. I found that there had been a steady deterioration in the social rank of the children, and with it a decline in the numbers and the reputation of the school ever since. The children of the lower professional men, and even of the respectable tradesmen, had been withdrawn. "Wooden clogs had come in and "trencher caps had gone out," as the master said. The study of French and Drawing had been given up. None were learning Greek, and scarcely any had begun the elements of Latin. The general education was in no sense adapted for the middle classes, at least it was not valued by them, and this school, with its handsome building and ancient endowment, was forsaken by all the well-to-do people of the place, in favour of private schools, several of which in the neighbourhood are full and flourishing. But the school had been as little successful in attracting the poor as in gaining the class above them. The master complained of an increasing indisposition on the part of the parents to co-operate with him, of the irregularity of attendance, of the early and capricious removals from the school, and of the utter impossibility of

* I learned from the father that this determination was persisted in for a year, and that the boy was afterwards removed in disgust, owing to his systematic exclusion from the writing and arithmetic classes.

aiming at a higher education with such a class of pupils. Indeed, he frankly said, that the National and the Wesleyan school in the town possessed advantages in the shape of pupil teachers, and regular organization and inspection, with which his school could not hope to compete.

Its result.

In fact the attempt to make a compromise between the wishes of the founder and the needs of modern life has here completely failed. The school does not at present fulfil the purpose desired either by the party which would impose fees, or by that which would maintain its gratuitous character. It does not give the sort of education for which it was designed, either to the poor or to the rich. The upper classes will not permit the association of their sons, with the few children of labourers who come to it because the school is free. The lower classes find out that it is more to their interest to send their children to good primary schools than to one which is struggling ineffectually to sustain a higher character. Between the two, the grammar school it must be confessed is practically useless to both classes. It certainly is unable to give a classical education to either.

Giggleswick.

A similar question is now pending at Giggleswick. I should dwell in much greater detail, on the very curious and instructive history of the recent debates concerning this school if it were not that one of the governors who is fully conversant with them all, has already given to the commissioners the great advantage of his personal testimony on the chief points in debate.* It will suffice here to draw attention to the main facts. The school owes its foundation to Edward VI. A clause in one of the earliest charters describes it as a school for the education of "children and young men" and expressly enjoins the master "to teach indifferently the poor as well as the rich, the parishioners as well as the stranger." There are, therefore, no local restrictions or claims. Yet the inhabitants have come to regard the school as one intended for their benefit, and for many years past the scholars, though not numerous, have been drawn from the immediate neighbourhood. Among them a considerable proportion have belonged to the class which usually frequents a national school, and a very small number have been able to avail themselves of the Latin and Greek teaching, for which the foundation provides. Meanwhile there has been a steady increase in the value of the charity property, most of which is situated in distant parts of the county, and the present income amounts to 1200*l.* The statutable course of study has been enlarged by the admission of modern subjects; new and handsome buildings have been erected, and the school in its organization and resources has become strong enough to render great services to the education of the whole north of England. These services, however, it does not render, for the privilege of gratuitous education has been confined to the inhabitants of the parish and its neighbourhood; and while the school is filled with children of this class it offers no attractions to parents at a distance who desire a classical education for their

* See the evidence of Mr. C. S. Roundell, concerning the Giggleswick school.

sons. A new board of governors recently appointed, and comprising some influential men drawn from a wider area than the old parochial limits, has proposed a new scheme. They wish to raise the character of the school and to increase the number of scholars by throwing it open to boys from all parts of England, requiring a small capitation fee from all alike, founding exhibitions out of the surplus thus obtained, and bringing the influence of competition to bear upon the masters. The governors held a public meeting at Settle in order to explain the reason of their plan, but their scheme was received with vehement expressions of disapproval by the inhabitants of the town.

Failure of the governors' proposals.

The meeting was followed by others, several conferences were held between the governors and the representatives of the inhabitants, and attempts were made on both sides to agree by a compromise. By the inhabitants a proposal was made, that at least 50 boys should be taught free of expense, but that reading and writing should be held as a sufficient qualification for admission. The governors rejoined, that such a course would be fatal to their plans. At the same time, with a view to deal tenderly with vested rights, and to disarm local opposition, they proposed to admit 25 free scholars from an area of eight miles in radius round the school, requiring only that all candidates should pass the same entrance examination as the governors should from time to time prescribe for all pupils, whether admitted free or by payment of a capitation fee. This proposition was rejected, and a further proposal by the governors to meet the difficulty by promising to admit 30 free scholars, provided the area from which they were chosen was unlimited, shared the same fate. Ultimately, in December 1865, the governors, finding agreement hopeless, determined to abandon their scheme altogether for the present.*

Batley.

At Batley, a large manufacturing town in the centre of the "shoddy" district, there is a school long known as a Free School. The founder William Lee expressly provides that the children of the parish of Batley shall be "taught as well to read English and "to write as in the Latin and Greek tongue, and that the master "shall make such as are capable fit for the University." At the beginning of this century, when two of the present trustees were pupils, it was in the strictest sense of the term a free grammar school. The neighbourhood was sparsely peopled, and the school sufficed for the wants of all classes. As years went on manufactures were introduced, the poor multiplied, gentlemen's sons were withdrawn, and the school being the only one in the place, served the purpose of an elementary school. But the extraordinary development of wealth and prosperity in this region during the last 10 years has again altered the educational aspect of the town. There are several good primary schools in the parish which receive the Government grant, and which are filled with the children of the artizans and smaller shopkeepers; but above this class there are

* It seems right to say that in coming to this decision the governors were greatly influenced by the decision of Vice-Chancellor Page Wood, in the case which had just then been argued, of the Berkhampstead school.

numerous prosperous tradesmen and manufacturers who desire something higher than the education of the National schools for their sons. In these circumstances the trustees determined as late as the year 1862 to sanction a new scale of payments, on this wise :

> " That instruction in reading, and writing, English, and in the Greek and Latin languages, so as to make such as be capable fit for the University, shall be entirely free of charge to as many sons of Batley parishioners as can be accommodated in the school room."
>
> " That instruction in other subjects not provided by the founder, viz., arithmetic, history, geography, book-keeping, mensuration, Euclid, algebra, &c., forming part of the regular school course, shall be paid for in advance by each scholar at the rate of 10*s.* per quarter."

Effect of a low scale of fees.

But the compromise here attempted has not succeeded well. The low scale of fees virtually closes the school to the children of the manufacturers, and their place is filled by pupils, who would get all they want at the elementary school, and cannot stay long enough to avail themselves of the education which the present master is prepared to give. His plan is to raise the fees, and so to secure a higher class of boys. The trustees also desire to sell the existing premises, which, being in the midst of Batley, are very valuable, and with the proceeds and a public subscription which might easily be raised, to build a new school house and a residence for the master, in which he might take boarders. The trustees say with truth that Batley now contains a class of people who want a higher education, and that there is no other provision for it. They think that the town contains adequate provision for the poor, four good elementary schools under inspection being now included in the area once solely supplied by the school. They hoped to escape the difficulty by the timid compromise embodied in the present scale of charges, but they find that there is no chance of doing so unless they incur the unpopularity of further advancing the fees.

A "Free" grammar school practically impossible.

The truth is that, considering the altered condition of modern society, a *free* grammar school is an anachronism. If a school be free it is filled with a class of children who do not learn grammar; and if classics are sedulously taught, the school soon ceases to be free. There is not an endowed school in this district which at this moment deserves the name of a free grammar school. Everyone of the great schools in which boys are being prepared for the universities has ceased to be a free school. And everyone which retains its free character has sunk, both as regards the social position of its scholars, and the quality of its teaching either to the level of a national school or greatly below it.

Notwithstanding the clearness of founder's intentions.

The founders of these schools undoubtedly contemplated a union of classes for purposes of instruction. The modern notion of middle class education, as something distinct from a gentleman's education, did not prevail in their day. The theory of the school was that the process of training which was good for the mind of a gentleman's son was equally good for that of a tradesman. There was probably in the minds of the founders a sincere desire

to bring upwards, from the lower ranks, men "qualified to serve "God in Church and State," and so to offer to the humblest citizen the chance of rising to high scholarship and to the social advantages, and the public usefulness which accompany it. And it was doubtless hoped that classes of men sundered far too widely in the struggle of life by diverse interests, by rivalries, and by physical wants, might yet be brought into closer sympathy, and made more helpful and more ready to understand each other, by a system of united education.

The true use of an endowment, to supplement not to supersede parent's payments.

If it is doubtful whether the school which is to teach Latin and Greek can henceforth sustain its character except by charging a scale of fees suitable to the condition of those parents who want Latin and Greek for their sons, the question arises, "What is the use of the endowment?" The answer is very simple. The cost of a good education has increased in a far greater ratio than the value of the property. Hence the endowment which once sufficed to meet the whole cost of such education can now only do so in part. It should supplement, not supersede, the payments made by parents. The people of the middle class are not unwilling to pay from 4*l.* 4*s.* 0*d.* to 10*l.* per annum for the education of their children. Yet these sums will not suffice, except in very large schools, to pay the present cost of good teachers. The value of an endowment to this class is therefore very great. It makes all the difference between a good school and a bad one. It is in this light that the people of Batley, Giggleswick, Keighley, and many other places would do well to regard the valuable endowments which they possess. If the property is considered to be the substitute for the parent's payments, it demoralizes the people; for it makes them negligent about their children's instruction. But if it comes in to supplement their own efforts, it becomes a real boon to them. At present, if there be two neighbouring towns, of which the one has a free grammar school and the other has not; the latter is always the better off for the means of instruction, for it is sure to possess a school which stands or falls by its own merits. The former gets instruction which is not paid for, it is true, but which is worth nothing. Suppose, however, that the duty of paying reasonable fees was generally recognized, the difference between the two towns would be simply this, that the former would have the better school. In both towns alike parents would get instruction for their children—in both alike they would pay for it; but in the former the master would have a better income, the school would be better built, better furnished, and would enjoy the advantage of a historic and permanent character.

The poor of the several towns I have mentioned have ample educational provision of a kind which was not contemplated when the grammar school was endowed: a course exactly adapted to their needs is now attainable by payment of the fee of 2*d.* or 3*d.* per week. The Government grant is worth more to them than an endowment. But the class above the poor have no such provision. It is for them, therefore, that the school should be

adapted, and this can only be done by charging such fees as will properly represent the difference between primary and secondary education, and as the thriving shopkeeper, the lawyer, and the doctor are willing to pay. The fact that such fees were demanded, would go far to bring to the school the class which at present is driven out of Batley or Keighley to find instruction. But it would do more. A sufficient fund might thus be furnished, when added to the endowment, to pay a good staff of highly qualified teachers. And in this way the grammar school would be a great boon to the whole town, and a means of supplying its most serious educational want.

Yet it should not be forgotten that to propose the alienation of trust funds to purposes of intermediate education only, is, in effect, to withdraw them from the poor, and make them of use to the middle classes. Such a proposition is justifiable on the ground that the Parliamentary grant is to be permanent, but on no other. Unless it be distinctly understood that the State is pledged to charge itself with the future maintenance of primary education, the withdrawal of the funds which at one time sustained the only public schools of the country, would inflict a great wrong on the poor. But on the assumption that the Government grant is to be continued, and in view of the fact that its present administration furnishes a far more effective subsidy for elementary education than any other, the appropriation for purposes of secondary instruction of many of the sums now accruing from endowments becomes an act of necessity and of justice.

Fees necessary even in schools for the poor.

And while the expediency of imposing fees in the middle and upper schools is very apparent, it seems no less necessary that the same principle should be adopted in such schools as are likely to be always filled by the children of the poor. The importance of charging something to the parent does not diminish as we descend lower in the social scale. We have seen that in the grammar schools the proposal to introduce fees comes from the trustees, while the opposition to that proposal comes chiefly from the parents. But in the endowed schools, which are non-classical, and which are filled by children of the poor, the resistance to the imposition of fees arises chiefly from the trustees themselves. One or two instances of this difficulty will suffice.

Examples: Wortley.

At Wortley there is a respectable endowment, and the trustees feel themselves bound by the terms of the founder's will to devote it to the maintenance of free scholars in the school. There is a national school in the parish. A short time ago, finding the income increasing, the trustees increased the number of free scholars from eight to twelve. On my visit I found that the master was wholly unaided, and that there was a great lack of the appliances and equipment of a good school. The testimony of the master was wholly unfavourable to the admission of free scholars, who he said were the means of keeping all the more respectable children away. I had the advantage here of some conversation with one of the principal trustees. He told me that

the income had increased, and that by the sale of some property which had lately become valuable, it was likely to increase still more. I asked what the trustees would propose to do with their augmented income. He replied that they would increase the number of free scholars. I suggested that it might be better to increase the efficiency of the school; and the vicar of the parish also expressed a wish that some of the money should be devoted to the improvement of the teaching staff and of the school premises. But this proposition did not find favour with the trustees. To all representations that the people of Wortley do not want gratuitous education, and that it helps to pauperize them and to do them more harm than good, there is but one answer, "This "is an endowment left for free scholars. We administer the "trust as we find it; we neither have the power nor the wish to "alter it."

Wakefield.

There is at Wakefield a board of governors composed of the most influential men in the place, and entrusted with the administration of several important charities. Among these charities there are the grammar school, almshouses, pensions, a dispensary, and a fund for apprenticing poor boys. In the scheme now under the consideration of the governors it is proposed *inter alia* to allot 350*l.* per annum to the continual support of an ancient charity school for the education of the poor, called the Green Coat School. On inquiry I found that this school is conducted by a certificated master, is placed by the governors under annual inspection, and occupies the position of an ordinary national school. There are, however, now several very good national schools in the parish, and I was anxious to ascertain in what relation this school stood to them and to the wants of the town. Its teaching does not differ from that of the parochial schools, and it is filled with children of the same class. In other schools, however, the weekly charge is 3*d.* or 4*d.* per week; in this it is only a penny. In others children are admitted as a matter of course; here they are elected at a meeting of the governors. Moreover, the best boys of this school receive a suit of clothing, and they have the preference in the election both to apprenticeships, and to the exhibitions for the grammar school. The advantages thus possessed by the Green Coat School are withdrawn from other elementary schools in the town. The incumbents of the parishes in Wakefield are very sensible of the disadvantage under which this arrangement places their parochial schools. They complain of a rivalry, which, though it diminishes the prestige and usefulness of their own schools does nothing to raise the general character of the education of the town.* They urge that if the Green Coat School, standing in its present position as simply the national school of the parish church, were without any endowment it would be supported by subscriptions and by the Government grant, and would be quite as efficient as at present; other elementary schools would work better, and 350*l.* might be

Objections to the maintenance of charity school.

* See the resolutions of the local clergy, appended to the report on the Wakefield school.

rendered available for other purposes. They suggest that if all the advantages which the governors can offer were freely open to the competition of all other schools on equal terms a new and powerful stimulus might be given to the educational machinery of the town.

Arguments urged in its favour.

On the other hand the governors urge that the school thus endowed as a free school for the poor was entrusted to their hands, and that they have no power even if they had the will to abandon it. They contend there are many people in the town—widows, and people with large families, to whom the payment even of the national school fee is a serious difficulty, and who may properly be relieved. They consider it important to keep this one elementary school under their own guardianship. They regard the education, the clothing, and apprenticeship, as parts of one system which they have to administer, and they think it wise to limit the boon of apprenticeship to the child whom the governors have in the first instance selected, and who has been under their own eyes during his school life.

It is right to add that in the hands of enlightened and benevolent men like the Wakefield trustees there is much to be said for this view. They inherit a trust which places them in a *quasi* paternal relation to the poorest of their neighbours, and conscious that they are discharging the trust with fidelity and kindness, they not unnaturally resent interference. Yet I have no doubt that a good part of the 350*l.* they devote to this purpose is wasted. It cheapens education not only for those few who are unable to pay, but for the many who could well afford and who ought to pay. It establishes an unfair competition with other schools, whose pupils it withdraws, not by the offer of better teaching, but by the bribe of lower fees, an apprentice premium, or a suit of clothes. Above all, it destroys the self respect of the poor, whom it places in the position of suppliants to the governors for pecuniary help.

Other illustrations of the free system.

At Easingwold, I found a school along the middle of which was a partition, breast high, dividing the scholars into two groups. The master's desk was fixed in an elevated position, and dominated both divisions of the school. He explained to me that the free scholars were on one side and the paying scholars on the other. He had erected the partition, he said, in defence of his own interests, for unless he kept the two classes of pupils—the "sheep and the goats," as he familiarly called them—habitually apart, the more respectable parents would object to pay, and perhaps remove their children altogether. I learned that while he was bound to admit a certain number of free scholars, it had been his custom to receive others on the footing of private pupils; and that even in the playground there was no intercourse between them.

This marked and invidious separation between the free and the paying scholars is not an uncommon feature in the humbler schools. In some cases the distinction becomes painfully manifest when the children are examined. Thus at Burnsall, the children of the village are supposed to receive the same instruction as the master's private pupils. One half of the boys belonged to

the latter class, and they proved to be the only scholars who knew anything.

The attempt to combine in one school children selected for their poverty, and others who pay fees, is almost always unsatisfactory; and year by year the difficulty seems to increase. Either the interests of the poor are sacrificed to the master's desire to pay attention to those who remunerate him best; or the paying parents rebel against the association of their sons with those of their poorest neighbours.

I saw one school in Durham in which both of these evils had operated together. There were but five scholars, of whom one was on the foundation and four were private pupils. The statutes require that six of the town boys shall be educated gratuitously. But the vicar, who has the nomination of these foundationers, told me that he could not get candidates to fill up the five vacancies and that the poor preferred to pay 2*d.* or 3*d.* to the National School, believing that, as free scholars in the grammar school, they would be neglected. On the other hand the master assigned as a reason for the smallness of his own private school, that the better class of people were prevented from sending their children, through a dislike to their association with the free boys.

It is important to bear in mind that proposals to abolish the system of free admission into schools will often encounter opposition. But of the two main grounds of such opposition, one is sometimes put forth with great prominence and the other suppressed. Much will be said about the vested rights of the poor to receive the aid. Little will be said about the vested rights of the rich to dispense it. But I am convinced after meeting many bodies of trustees that this latter class of objection, though unavowed, often constitutes the true *gravamen* of complaint, and that the interests of the poor are sometimes sacrificed even by good and well-intentioned people to their own love of patronage.

How is the spirit of the ancient foundations to be best carried out?

Among those in the district who have watched the working of charities most carefully, I find a strong wish to deal boldly with the ancient endowments, to decline absolutely to carry out the intention of the founders when it is clear that it would not be wise to do so, and at once fairly to recognize the fact that the circumstances of our times make it very undesirable that any class of people should receive education for nothing. At the same time, it is a duty not less imperative and yet more sacred to carry out the spirit of the original intentions, in so far as they embodied a true desire for the spread of knowledge, and a sympathy with the wants and the aspirations of the poor. A proposal to take away from the humblest child in England any power which he now possesses of raising himself to the highest position in it would be cruelly unjust. It has been the great boast of the free grammar schools in days gone by to lift up the clever son of a poor man, and to place within his reach the highest education which the country could give. "They are," said Lord Lyndhurst, "the "avenues by which the humbler classes, by industry, activity, "and intelligence, can find their way into the highest situations

" in the State, and by furnishing the means of uniting, at an early " age, the upper and lower classes, they tend to bind together by " the strongest ties the whole system of society."

It would be superfluous to name the men who have risen to the greatest eminence from the lower walks of life by the aid of the grammar schools. The long and illustrious roll suffices to vindicate not only the worthiness but also the practicability of the great end contemplated by the founders; and it is this same end which it may be hoped will never be overlooked in dealing with institutions of this kind. It has been shown, that in our day at least, the end is not to be attained by the indiscriminate offer of free education in Latin or Greek to all comers in a village or little country town; for it is found in fact that scarcely anyone accepts the offer, and that when it is accepted by a small minority it is at the sacrifice of the interests of all the rest of the community. How then can this end be best attained?

Not by remitting fees to "founder's kin."

As to the remission of fees in the case of founder's kin, little need be said. This provision generally becomes inoperative in a generation or two, and throughout this district I have found no single instance of the descendants of a founder enjoying the benefits of his bequest. In the governing bodies, it is true, I have three or four times found the representatives of the founders still taking a share in the management of the trust; but in no instance have I found a pupil claiming free admission on this ground.

Nor by the grant of free instruction to parishioners.

The restriction of the privilege of free education to the inhabitants of a town or parish is much more common. The "foundation" boys are generally chosen from a limited area; and if fees are charged, are admitted at a lower rate than others. But I notice a tendency everywhere to obliterate this distinction. In the more recent schemes I find trustees proposing to place all the scholars—town boys and foreigners—on the same footing, and I cannot doubt that, even without the stimulus of special legislation, governing bodies will gradually perceive the policy of abolishing the exclusive privileges of parishioners, and assimilating the charges. For if a school be a good one, the inhabitants enjoy a sufficient privilege in the fact that it is at their doors; and if it be a bad one, it is generally the fact of the existence of a privileged class of scholars which keeps it so. It is the surest sign of the vitality of a school that it attracts pupils from a distance; and it is greatly to the interest of the local pupils that others should be thus attracted. In so far then as a higher scale of fees acts as a prohibitory duty on the admission of such scholars, all experience seems to prove that it works badly, and ought to be generally abandoned.

Nor by maintaining a "constant" number of free scholars.

The practice of admitting a fixed number of free scholars, in accordance with the provisions of a will, is also open to serious objection. A number thus arbitrarily chosen and adhered to year after year, seldom bears any relation to the real wants of the place, or to the number of fitting recipients of the gift. In a decaying country town, or in a worthless school, I have often found that the whole number of scholars fell short of the minimum of

free admissions at the disposal of the trustees. In other places, the increase of the school has affected the proportion of free scholars in the opposite way. But in both circumstances it seemed desirable that the governing body should possess the power of altering the number from time to time, as experience might suggest.

Two conditions alone seem to justify the bestowal of free education, exceptional poverty, and exceptional merit.

But by confining gratuitous education to children of persons unusually poor.

As to the former, its claims can be met, by leaving in the hands of the trustees a certain portion of the funds, and a discretion as to the admission of any scholar whose circumstances render it impossible for him to pay the fees. A small number may with advantage be fixed as the maximum; but it should be understood that the governors were by no means bound to keep that number full. The fees for these children should be paid in the shape of fees, and out of the fund at the disposal of the governors. No children should be recognizable in the school as free scholars; all should be paid for: the difference being that for ordinary pupils the parents would pay, and that for others the governors would pay, the usual school rates. I regret to say that my district furnishes me with little experience which I can quote in favour of this plan; but all the testimony which I have received from teachers and school managers leads me to think that the occasional claims of the necessitous poor are far better met in this way than by any arrangement which assumes the need for gratuitous education to be a constant quantity in any given place.

Or to the best scholars chosen by competitive examination.

Of the plan which offers higher education, as a reward to scholars of exceptional merit, one may speak with far more confidence and hope. If well worked out, I believe that it offers the wisest and most practical solution to the difficulties of the question. Fortunately the experiment has been tried in this district, and I am enabled to offer something better than my own opinion in illustration of its merits.

Examples of the working of this system:

Doncaster.

At Doncaster there is a grammar school, founded about 1618, endowed with an insignificant sum. At the time of the inquiry of the Charity Commission in 1827, the property of the school was returned as derived from a small piece of land let at 3*l.* a year, a further allotment producing 6*l.*, and the rent of three pews in the parish church let at 10*l.* 10*s.* a year. Besides this sum of 19*l.* 10*s.*, the corporation of the town made a voluntary or customary gift of 80*l.* per annum in consideration of the gratuitous education in classical learning which the master undertook to give to all the sons of freemen who were sent to him. At the time of the inquiry seven such scholars were in the school, paying a quarterage for writing and accounts, and a few others were admitted by the master as private pupils. In the year 1862 a new scheme was framed by the trustees under the authority of the Court of Chancery. Under this scheme the corporation of Doncaster agree to subsidize the school with 250*l.* per annum,—not as a fixed payment in aid of the funds; but in the form of capitation

fees—at 25*l.* each for 10 free boys. These are called "corporation scholars" and are elected by competitive examination. Every year there are about three vacancies. The masters of all the elementary schools in the town receive notice that a competitive examination will be held, and an examination takes place in reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, English and Bible history. I learned that the greatest interest was excited in the competition; that the teachers of the National and British schools sent up their choicest pupils, and were very eager to secure for them a good place in the list.

The privilege of election is deservedly prized by parents, for the grammar school is under very able management, is crowded with scholars, and is about to be transferred to new and handsome buildings, towards the cost of which the corporation and the inhabitants have liberally subscribed. The school has two departments—a classical or upper school consisting of 91 boys, and an English or commercial with 53 scholars, and the parents of every Corporation scholar when elected have the right to place him in either, according to their own choice. I learned that seven-tenths of the corporation scholars entered the classical department, and that most of them retain high places, and either have had or promise to have a distinguished school career. Selected as they are from the elementary schools in the town, they are necessarily of inferior social position to the mass of the boys in the school. But the head master assured me that the intellectual superiority evinced by their success in the competition, and by their standing in the classes, more than outweighed any disadvantage of rank, and that these boys were looked up to with respect by everyone in the school. Moreover, the fact that a lad had been thus distinguished caused his parents, even when poor, to take a pride in his appearance, and to make personal sacrifices with a view to maintain him honourably in the position which he had won.

The parishioners of Doncaster owe the resuscitation of the grammar school to the wisdom and experience of their vicar, the Rev. Dr. Vaughan, who suggested the details of the scheme, and who has watched over its execution with unfailing zeal and interest. In the whole of this district I know no institution which seems to me so well to provide at once for the claims of the higher education and for the claims of the poor. Considering the great difficulty so often felt in bringing these two into harmony, it may be well to recapitulate briefly those features of this particular plan, which give it value as an example to be imitated by other schools:—

(1.) It gives a free education in classics to those of the poor who alone can make a right use of it: *i.e.*, to those who are early distinguished for intelligence, and whose parents are willing to keep them at school till sixteen or seventeen years of age.

(2.) It opens for the humblest child in the town a road to the highest intellectual distinction both at a good grammar school and at the University.

(3.) It brings together the children of the lower and of the middle classes on a footing of practical equality and of mutual help, for the one class is improved in intelligence and the other in manners by their association on these conditions.

(4.) It stimulates the education in all the elementary schools of the place by provoking among them a rivalry for the exhibitions.

(5.) It makes a handsome addition to the resources of the grammar school and to the income of the head master; but this addition, instead of being like so many endowments, a premium on indolence, takes the form of fees paid at so much per head for certain scholars, and is therefore a payment for work actually done.

Barnsley.

In the Barnsley grammar school a similar experiment has been lately tried. Mrs. Locke, the widow of the late Mr. Joseph Locke, M.P., desiring to perpetuate the memory of her husband, and to identify his name with the school in which he received his education, has generously placed in the hands of the trustees the sum of 3,000*l.* for investment in any way which they may consider best calculated to promote the welfare of the school. After much deliberation, these gentlemen resolved to devote the principal portion of the annual usufruct of this sum to the foundation of ten scholarships tenable in the school, to be called the Locke scholarships. The fees, at 6*l.* 6*s.* 0*d.* per head, amount to 65*l.* per annum; a further sum of 10*l.* is spent in prizes and in the purchase of college caps for the Locke scholars, and 20*l.* is paid as a fee to a drawing master. The general regulations under which the Locke scholarships are tenable are as follows:—

The scholarships as they become vacant shall, without regard to religious tenets, be open to all boys of good character between the ages of 10 and 14 years, being the sons of parents born or residing within the townships of Barnsley, Dodworth, and Keresforth Hill, and who shall have passed the best competitive examination in reading, writing from dictation, and not less than two sums in each of the four first rules (simple and compound) in arithmetic.

The successful candidates shall be entitled to the full and free advantages of the school for the term of three years, but not longer unless they shall evince peculiar aptitude in some branch of education, in which case they may, on the recommendation of the master, and with the approbation of the trustees, hold the same for the term of four years.

The head scholar shall be called "the captain," and shall be furnished with and wear a college cap with a yellow tassel, and the remaining nine shall be furnished with and wear college caps with blue tassels.

The captaincy and yellow tassel shall be open to a competitive examination in all the branches of education herein-after enumerated early in the month of June in every year, such examination to be conducted in manner herein-after mentioned. They shall be furnished with class and other books so long as they shall take proper care of them, but no longer, the same to be delivered up

to the master when done with in good condition, or paid for by their parents or persons standing in *loco parentis*, reasonable allowance being made for wear and tear in the proper use thereof.

It will be seen that a double system of competition is at work in connexion with these scholarships, and that it influences the whole constitution and work of the school; for since the captaincy is only tenable for one year, there is an annual examination of the ten who are "Locke scholars" in order to determine who shall be the holder of that distinction for the next twelve months. As each vacancy arises there is a competitive examination for the award of a Locke scholarship, and although the children of other schools are freely invited, it is always assumed that every boy in the grammar school who does not already possess one is a candidate for it. Thus all the scholars in the school are annually subjected to examination in connexion with the scheme, which seems to me to have been judiciously devised and to be well calculated to promote the educational interests of the town. I regret that its complete success is somewhat hindered by the present state of the school, which is low both in numbers and efficiency. This, however, is a temporary evil, and as the educational character of the school improves, I do not doubt that the scholarships will be more valued, and that the benevolent object of their founder will be yet more fully realized.

Wakefield

In the new scheme propounded by the governors of the Wakefield charities a similar proposal is made with a view to provide for the advancement of scholars from the elementary to the grammar school, and from the lower to the upper classes of the school. There are, however, one or two points of detail in which the Wakefield plan differs from the others, without possessing any advantage over them: The trustees propose to endow the grammar school with an additional sum, in consideration of their right to nominate the free scholars; and this sum is paid as a direct and permanent subsidy, and not in the form of capitation fees for the individual scholars. Hence, it is quite conceivable that at some future time there will be a few or even no free scholars, and yet the payment will continue to be made in their behalf. Again, the examinations for admission to the free scholarship are not competitive. The trustees do not pledge themselves to take the best candidates, but reserve to themselves the right to nominate free scholars on other grounds than merit. Hence the scheme fails altogether to supply that wholesome emulation among the primary schools of the town, which it might easily afford. Lastly, a preference is given in the election to the scholars of the Green Coat School,—a school not necessarily the best, nor the most likely to furnish fitting candidates, but chosen because it happens to come more directly under the supervision of the governors.

Testimony in favour of the plan.

Although these are the only instances in this district of the formal adoption of the system of free scholarships obtainable by the children of the poor, I have found on the part of a large number of persons whose evidence I have taken, a very cordial

acceptance of the general principle embodied in the system, and a belief that it might be extended with advantage.*

The experience of some of the ablest head masters appears to be in favour of the award of free scholarships, as marks of distinction, even to those whose parents would be well able to pay the full cost of education. At S. Peter's, in York, there is an open competition every year for two foundation scholarships and two free scholarships; the successful candidates for the former obtaining the right to free board and education, and for the latter, to free education only, for four years. But as the competitors must have been at least one year in the school, these distinctions operate rather as rewards to those who are already obtaining a liberal education at their parents' expense than as means of attracting into the school clever boys who would not otherwise enjoy its advantages. The intended result is, however, very well attained. The Rev. Richard Elwyn, under whose wise and energetic management the school is rapidly extending in numbers and in influence, speaks most favourably of the working of the plan. He says, "We have no boys exempt from school fees, except the "sons of masters or of vicars choral in the cathedral. In all "other cases free education is obtainable by open competition. ". . . An endowment may most usefully be appropriated in the "form of a few exhibitions or scholarships. Too many would "have the effect of lowering the standard. As a rule they should be "open to competition in the school itself, as at S. Peter's. Except "in extreme cases, such as the Clergy Ophan School, &c., I think "it desirable that some fees should always be paid by a parent, at "least during the early period of a boy's education, giving him "every opportunity of gaining a free scholarship or exhibition "by his own exertions.

Master's salary should depend largely on fees.

In estimating the probable effect of the more general imposition of fees, I have hitherto confined myself to the influence of the free system upon parents, upon the mixture of different ranks of society, upon the attendance in the schools, and upon the relations in which the trustees stand to the persons for whom the school was intended. On all these points it has been possible to adduce the evidence of experience. But the influence of the free system on the masters and upon their own sense of duty is far more serious, although it is less easy to point out the data on which my own strong convictions on this subject rest. The one

* Mr. Walter Morrison, M.P., who, as trustee of several endowed schools, and a large landowner in the Craven district, has taken great interest in the whole question, describes to me his own plan for stimulating the efforts of teachers and children in the poor schools around his estate. "Give the masters a fixed stipend out of one "portion of the endowment, and impose school fees; and out of the remainder "establish exhibitions, tenable so long as the holder is at a grammar school, for say "four years, to be competed for by boys in a given district round the school, say in "a group of half a dozen parishes or in a given length of 'Dale;' each school "endowed or not, sending four boys for examination; a fee of 5*l.* to go to the master "whose boy gets an exhibition, provided that, all being under Government inspec- "tion, the general education of the school be satisfactory."

great vice of the endowed schools is that the payment received by the head master generally bears no proportion to the work which he does. Take any average man and put him into an irresponsible position, in which the same pay will be given him whether he does his work well or ill, and you place him under the strongest temptation to do that work ill. The illustrations of this in my district are very numerous. It is true that when fees are charged, they or a portion of them are added to the head master's salary; but they generally bear too small a proportion to the fixed revenue to stimulate him to any great exertion. A man who derives 400*l.* a year from property and who is at liberty to raise it by great efforts to 500*l.*, is apt, especially if disposed to indolence, to discover that the additional 100*l.* does not fairly represent to him the difference between an easy and a laborious life. Now the general imposition of adequate fees would not only give a larger aggregate income, but would enable the trustees to redistribute their resources so as to secure great advantages to the school. These fees would then form the principal portion of the master's stipend, a portion only of the endowment being added to it as permanent salary. The remainder of the income derived from property would thus be available for exhibitions, for scholarships, for providing instruction in science or modern languages, or for other purposes. Many different opinions have been expressed to me as to the proportion which the fixed or permanent part of the master's stipend should bear, to that which is dependent on the number of the pupils; and it is obvious that any general rule on this point would be subject to great modifications in different places. But all the most thoughtful persons to whom I have spoken on the subject are agreed that two-thirds or one-half at least of the professional receipts of every schoolmaster should be dependent on his personal exertions; and that whenever this proportion is not reached, there is but a slender chance of his putting forth much spontaneous energy, or doing the best work of which he is capable.

General conclusions respecting fees.

The general conclusions to which my observations and inquiries have led me on the subject of fees, may be thus briefly summed up:—

(1.) That it is expedient to make in every school charges for instruction, regulated mainly by the means of the class for whom it is designed.*

(2.) That these fees should be inclusive of all the highest teaching that the school can give, and that if graduated at all, it should be according to age only, but never according to the number or nature of the subjects taught.

(3.) That it is very undesirable to remit or to reduce the fees, merely on the ground of residence in a particular place, or in order to keep up a certain fixed number of privileged scholars.

* *i.e.*, in primary schools from 2*d.* to 6*d.* per week, in secondary schools from 4*l.* to 10*l.* per annum, and in higher schools from 10*l.* upwards.

(4.) That fees can be properly remitted only in the case of exceptional inability to pay and of exceptional merit.

(5.) That when a free scholarship at a good school is obtainable by competitive examination, it acts not only as an honourable incentive to the holder, but as a stimulus to the education in all the elementary schools from which competitors are admitted.

(6.) That it is wise to increase the proportion of the teacher's income which is derived from fees, and *pro tanto* to diminish that derived from the endowment.

(7.) That so much of the permanent income of the school as is thus saved may be judiciously spent in founding exhibitions, either to a higher school or to the University, in the improvement of school buildings and apparatus, and in increasing the staff of teachers.

I have thus enumerated some of the causes which help to account for the present declining state of the Endowed Grammar Schools in this district. They fall under three heads; the constitution of governing bodies, the restrictions on their power of appointing and removing masters, and the difficulty of regulating the fees. But all these circumstances influence the schools *from without*. Far graver considerations arise in connexion with the actual condition of the schools as to instruction and discipline; and to these I will now briefly refer.

Instruction.

Instruction.

The observations which follow on this subject are general, and are inductions based on an examination more or less minute of all the schools in this district. But in justice to the teachers it is right to say that there are some exceptions to every general statement which I shall make; and that the extent to which these statements apply to any particular school can only be judged by the specific reports given elsewhere.

In three of the highest schools.

There are three grammar schools in this district which are conspicuously in advance of all the rest, in numbers and in reputation. They are S. Peter's in York, Leeds, and Doncaster. These schools lay themselves out for higher education, and their curriculum is designed to prepare boys for the universities. All are under the care of accomplished and energetic men, are increasing in numbers, and are obtaining distinction at the universities.* And I do not believe that better preparation is to be had anywhere than is

* During the early half of the year 1866, the boys from S. Peter's at York obtained the following distinctions:—An open scholarship at Exeter College, Oxford, two scholarships at Durham, two of Lady E. Hastings' Exhibitions at Queen's College, Oxford, two first classes in moderations, a fellowship at Trinity, and one at Corpus Christi, Cambridge, a chancellor's medal for legal studies, a high place in the list of wranglers, a mathematical prize at Jesus College, and several exhibitions and medals at the University of London, and in the Royal Agricultural College.

obtainable at these schools under their present management. For example, in one school which may be taken as a fair type of the three, the sixth form read with the head master during the last half-year the Prometheus Vinctus, 500 lines of the Œdipus Tyrannus, the xviii. and xix. books of the Iliad, a portion of Thucydides, and the Crito of Plato. In Latin they read Virgil's Second Georgic, the first book of Ovid's Fasti, Horace's Odes, book iv., and Ars Poetica, one of Cicero's Orations, and 200 lines of Lucretius. Besides these, a portion of the Greek Testament was read, constant exercises were given in Greek and Latin composition in prose and verse, and portions of good English historians and poets were read in connexion with classical books of analogous character and subject. During the same period the mathematical course comprised Euclid, algebra and plane trigonometry, analytical geometry, statics, and conic sections.

The course well adapted to prepare a pupil for the university.

So long as the highest prizes at the universities are given for Greek and Latin and for mathematics, the curriculum pursued at these schools could not be better adapted to its end. Greek and Latin versification is the highest achievement aimed at in the upper forms, because it is the form of scholarship which is surest of recognition, and the safest investment for those who mean to compete for exhibitions. And if a youth has a turn for mathematics, and wishes to distinguish himself at Cambridge, he cannot be better employed at school than in the solution of an immense number of problems in the higher algebra, in trigonometry, and in the calculus. A pupil who leaves school thus equipped for college, at the age of 18, is at least on his road to a complete education according to the received English standard. He may be ignorant of modern languages, of physical science, and of the history of his own country, but these are deficiencies which will be partly supplied at the university, and by association with the world of books and of thoughtful men, which he is thus qualified to enter. His attention may never have been directed to the *rationale* employed in mathematical processes. But it is presumed that discipline of this kind is in some way latent in the working out of problems, and that, without explicit teaching, the logic of mathematics, and its relation to the practical problems of life, will, in time become apparent to him. The school life is supposed to be the time for mechanical preparation and drill; the university and the world are to furnish intellectual development.

Accordingly, in the great schools every scholar is regarded as a possible sixth-form boy, and is trained in the supposition that he will some day proceed to Oxford or Cambridge. All the lower work of the school is done on this hypothesis. The head master's ideal of a good junior class is one in which the boys are well "grounded" in the Latin and Greek grammar. A good junior teacher need not concern himself with explanations, with principles. He has nothing to do with the boy's education as a whole. He measures his success by the rapidity with which he can transfer his pupils from his own class to a higher. There is, in fact, no attempt to give completeness to a boy's education, or to preserve

any proportion between its parts; except on the assumption that he is to go to the University. And the work of the lower part of the school, however incomplete and one-sided, is justified on the ground that relatively to the University course it is the best that can be devised.

Nevertheless, the statistics of the schools prove that less than 20 per cent. of the scholars ever complete this course, and that little more than that number ever reach the sixth form. Of the remaining 80, a large number leaves at 15 or 16 from the fourth or fifth form, and goes at once into business, or into some of the lower professions. And the question is constantly asked by parents, "Does the sort of rudimentary scholarship which a boy of 16 years "gains in a good classical school, constitute the best training he "could receive? What is the value of that *frustum* or incomplete "portion of a grammar-school course, which the majority of "the scholars carry away with them? The answer to this question is not satisfactory. An average lad of this class spends seven years altogether at school. His parents find at the end of that time that he does not read well, that is to say with intelligence or taste; that he neither writes a good hand, nor expresses himself in writing with clearness; that he has not acquired any general taste for books, or knowledge of them. He knows little or nothing of physical science, and he can seldom draw. It cannot be said that he is absolutely ignorant of history, of geography, of the constitution and government of his own country, of poetry, or general literature; but on all these points he is less well-informed, and, as a rule, less inquisitive, than a youth who has devoted seven or eight years to school work ought to be.

Which is erroneously supposed to be the destination of all the pupils.

To compensate for these grave defects he has a tolerably accurate knowledge of Latin grammar and an elementary acquaintance with Greek. He can read Cæsar easily, and Horace or Virgil with the help of a dictionary: he can also construe the easier parts of the Greek Testament fairly. But he has not yet caught the classical style of thought, nor acquired any enthusiasm about ancient authors. He can acquit himself fairly with a piece of translation *as a lesson*, but it is not to him a resource, he has not learned to turn to a Greek or Latin book for enjoyment. The consequence is, that he rarely turns to one at all. The business of life begins to challenge his attention. All his pursuits and likings take his mind in another direction, and in four or five years his Greek and Latin are forgotten. Yet it would not be right to say that they have borne no fruit. They have insensibly influenced his cast of mind, have made him more conscious of the need of exactness in language, have enlarged his vocabulary, and have given him the key to the sort of allusions which are to be found in the speech and the writings of educated men. But these advantages have cost him too much. I have met with scores of men whom I have questioned on this point, men of good position who had received a grammar school education, and who complain

much of its barrenness.* It must be added, too, that even their testimony hardly does justice to the evil of the case. A man is naturally disposed to rate at least at its full value the "shibboleth" of educated society, if he has the good fortune to possess it.

The interests of boys who are likely to proceed to the universities are secure. No public measures are required for their protection. No special solicitude on their behalf need be felt by your Commission. The whole system of exhibitions, all the traditions of the grammar schools, to say nothing of the personal tastes and ambition of the head masters, give ample encouragement, and furtherance to pupils of this class. The danger is, lest for their sake the claims of a far larger class should be disregarded. Now among the shrewd and practical people of this district, there is an increasing desire for genuine culture and no disposition to under-value the study of the classics, but there is certainly a feeling that it is a mistake to subject a boy who is never going to the University to a course which pre-supposes that to be his destination. This feeling is recognized by some of the governing bodies themselves. Accordingly in each of these great schools there is a modern or English department separated from the classical. It is worth while to give some details as to these important experiments.

Modern departments insufficient to meet the needs of the majority.

At Leeds there is an English department or lower school in which a reduced fee of 4*l.* 4*s.* 0*d.* per annum is charged. There are, at present, 50 boys in it, the room being adapted for double that number. The boys constitute an entirely distinct school, receiving no lessons in common with those of the classical school. They learn a little Latin; and French is also well taught by the master, who is a clergyman, and has resided some years in France. He has entire charge of the school, and is unassisted, except by a writing and arithmetic master, who gives lessons for certain hours in the week. The trustees are unwilling to increase the number in this department because if it contained 70 or 80 scholars it would become necessary to engage another master, and the additional fees would not suffice to pay him. It is evident that an English department, thus constituted, has not a fair chance of success, and does not correspond either to the needs of such a town as Leeds or to the resources and *prestige* of the great school of which it forms a part. It is impossible to have proper organization in a school composed of 50 boys of all ages under one master. He can but hear a few boys at a time, while the rest are learning lessons or writing exercises with little or no supervision. Moreover,

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* "The classics are taught in such a way as to benefit only those who by superior "talents or inordinately long continuance at school, eventually emerge from the "darkness overhanging their elementary training * * * If I begin my march at "*Penna*, with half a hundred little privates; before the march is ended my company "has been eight times decimated, and a sorry decade is left for the closing of the "campaign. Some have fallen by the way, and been buried in lawyers' offices or "counting-houses, or beneath bank-counters. Some have deserted and gone to serve "other commanders, who give them a finer uniform and less toilsome work."—D'Arcy Thompson's "Day Dreams of a Schoolmaster."

a clergyman in such a position generally considers classical teaching his proper work, and hopes for preferment to the upper division of the school: and the boys of this lower division are looked down upon as an inferior caste, and do not associate with the rest either in play or otherwise.

At York, a separate division of the school is called the Civil and Military department. It consists of 40 boys, of whom 10 are preparing for special examinations. The fees are the same as in the classical department; there is here, therefore, no difference of rank to prevent the association of the pupils in the playground. The instruction is in the hands of one master, who is not a graduate, and who is assisted by a French master four times a week. Its organization is that of a separate school. More attention is given to English. The elements of natural science are learned. No Greek is taught. The object of establishing this department was to furnish a means of special preparation for those who were going up to any professional examinations, *e.g.*, for the navy or for the law; and this object has been well attained, for the pupils have been remarkably successful. Incidentally, however, this department has served another purpose, for it is the general refuge for those who through dulness, idleness, or early neglect, are unable to keep pace with the work required in the grammar school.

It will be observed that in both these cases the modern department is regarded as of inferior rank to the classical, is under-officered, and derives little advantage or strength from its connexion with the grammar school. It is rather an excrescence than an organic part of the school. It exists rather by sufferance than with strong approval. To try an experiment of this kind with success it is necessary that some of the teaching power of the larger school should be available for the modern department; or that if it be regarded as a separate school it should be well organized on that footing, and have suitable classification and an adequate staff of teachers for its special work.

A wider course of general instruction needed even in the best grammar schools.

But if the ordinary course of instruction in the grammar schools were made at once more comprehensive and more intelligent, the need for a modern department as a separate institution would be greatly diminished. A course of instruction might surely be devised, which, while equally good for the purpose of those who contemplate a university career, would be more serviceable to that large number whose education terminates earlier. If in the lower forms of a school English grammar were taught *pari passu* with Latin, if more attention were paid to reading, to English composition, and to the cultivation of a boy's general intelligence; if arithmetic were taught in its principles, so that as far as it was worked it was understood, and if more pains were taken with the finish of all written exercises, there would be little need to separate the two classes of pupils. Such a course, even if frustrated at the age of 14 or 15, would have a unity and a value of its own. More oral teaching, more frequent appeals to the intelligence and taste of the pupils in connexion with elementary work, the earlier introduction of history and elementary science, and the postponement of Latin

versification and of Greek to a later stage of a learner's course would meet the requirements of 80 per cent. of the scholars far more effectually than the present course. And it is difficult to believe that the interests of the remaining 20 would be sacrificed to such an arrangement. On the contrary, I believe that some unexpected advantages would accrue, and that the delay in mastering some technical details would be more than compensated by the intelligence and consequent rapidity with which they could be acquired.

In this district the number of boys who are prepared to complete their education according to the grammar school theory is very small; but the number who want the highest education which able scholars can give up to 15 or 16 is very large. It is not therefore by the establishment of modern departments, which are treated with scant respect by the principal teachers that the problem can be solved. It is rather by the adoption of a wiser and more comprehensive general course, a course which shall be from the first under the eye of the head master, and shall be conducted in a scholarly spirit.

This object partially obtained in smaller schools.

This important problem appears to me to be much more nearly solved in the practice of two or three of the smaller grammar schools. It will be seen by reference to the reports on Ripon, Halifax, and Richmond, that the interests of the majority of the scholars are not always sacrificed to those of the few who are going to college. In these schools the whole are taught together; all share in the supervision of the head master; and the whole teaching resources of the school are available for every boy.* Some are far advanced in classical learning, while the rest are receiving an education in all respects adapted to their wants, and more liberal in its character than that of a commercial school. Of these three schools, Richmond is the largest: there are more than 70 boys, and four resident masters. Of the five forms the first and second consist of beginners who all learn together. In the third form a bifurcation commences, and after a consultation with the parents each scholar is placed on either the "classical" or the "modern" side. Both classes work together and receive the same lessons in mathematics, in Latin, in English, and in French. The distinction only affects an hour or two of each day's work. The boys of the classical side commence Greek, and are exercised in Latin versification, while those of the modern receive extra instruction in French, English, mathematics, and the elements of natural science. In the fourth form this division continues to prevail for certain subjects, but the large proportion of the lessons is given to all scholars alike. In the fifth every boy on the modern side learns German, while the

* Thus, at Halifax great attention has been devoted by the head master to English literature, and the result has been most satisfactory. The following passage occurs in the report of the Rev. H. G. Robinson, the examiner of the school, and my own observation fully bears out his testimony. "I may refer to the papers on English "literature as giving evidence of careful teaching and intelligent study. The "subjects were Shakespeare's Richard II., and a portion of the first book of Hooker's "Ecclesiastical Polity. A very considerable number of boys showed a really good "knowledge of the subjects."

upper fifth consists exclusively of boys on the classical side who are reading for the universities. The Rev. T. H. Stokoe, to whose skilful management the remarkable success of this school is greatly due, appears to me to have here overcome a great difficulty. He has sought to meet the wants of boys who are likely to leave at 16, without constructing a modern department either as a place for special cramming or as a refuge for idleness. It is the object of his arrangements to make the boys on the "modern side" feel that their work is as severe and as important as the other, and to make as many of the lessons as possible the same for both classes of pupils.

But not by modern departments.

In several small towns, notably at Pontefract and Pocklington, a very strong wish has been expressed to me by the inhabitants that a lower or middle school should be established in connexion with the grammar school. It is urged in both cases that the number of residents in the town whose sons are preparing for a professional or university life is very small. It is not contended that the grammar school is failing to do the work for which it is designed, but in one case 10 and in the other about 20 are all the classical pupils that the town can supply. Meanwhile, the large number of traders and small professional men who wish to put their boys into the world at 15 feel that the education given at the grammar school is not suited to their needs, and accordingly they send them to private boarding schools at a distance or to "academies" in the town. They do not like to place their children at the National school, and they complain that the advantages of the endowments are appropriated by richer people who can keep their sons at school longer. But it may well be doubted whether the division of the resources of the school by the establishment of a commercial department as an appendage to the grammar school would realize the hopes of its promoters. It would probably result in the existence, side by side, of two feeble schools, of which one would habitually be treated as the inferior of the other. I have met with no experience in the West Riding which justifies any hope of the success of such an experiment. There is no instance of the satisfactory working of two distinct establishments ostensibly for pupils of different social grades, under the same roof. The real want of such a town as Pocklington is one good school which is on a sufficiently large basis to admit the boy who is going to the University side by side with one who will leave earlier; and which knows how to do full justice to the reasonable requirements of both.

And as education improves the proportion of school lessons which will be found applicable to both classes of pupils will probably increase. We may hope for a race of schoolmasters who can conceive the possibility of a high and generous education which does not aim exclusively at faultless iambics or the solution of problems in the calculus. We may grant that this education will always be inferior because it will be less complete; but, as far as it goes, it may be real. It may give ideas, it may furnish discipline in reasoning, in observation, and in the use of words; and it may impart something of noble aspiration and culture. The entire

teaching power of a great school will thus become more available than it commonly is for the majority of the pupils. We shall not then see French and German undervalued* nor the claims of science contemptuously met by engaging a man to give a weekly lecture on a half-holiday and allowing boys who like to attend it. Above all, we shall avoid the vulgar expedient of separating boys early in life as a "commercial" class, and giving them an ignoble education on that pretext.

The smaller grammar schools.

In judging of the quality or extent of the education imparted in the grammar schools, nothing can be more misleading than the account of the curriculum given in official returns. It happens that a year before your Commission was nominated by the Crown, a return had been ordered by the House of Commons, on the motion of Mr. Hodgkinson,† comprising *inter alia*, a list of the subjects taught in the endowed grammar schools. This return is now before me. A comparison between it and the record of the actual state of the schools at the date of my visit would reveal the most curious discrepancies. Thus one school describes its course as "Greek, Latin, English, French, mathematics, geography and history;" another, "English, classics, and mathematics." Yet both proved on examination to be elementary schools of the humblest class, and nothing beyond reading, writing, and arithmetic was taught in either of them. In Yorkshire and Durham alone I have counted 38 schools which credited themselves at the end of 1864 with an ample and varied curriculum, including Greek and Latin, and other advanced subjects; but in which on examination in 1865, it was found that scarcely any scholars were learning the subjects so described.

Distinctions at the University not the measure of the goodness of a school.

Many of the grammar schools are accustomed to rest all their claims to reputation on the list of University distinctions gained by their scholars. This is a most fallacious test of the goodness of a school. In this district it would not be difficult to find instances in which great renown has been acquired solely by the success of one or two favoured scholars at the University. *Cæteris paribus*, it always affords a strong presumption in favour of a school when its scholars obtain such distinctions: but these distinctions are often paraded as advertisements, so as to give an entirely false impression of the worth of the general teaching; and they have sometimes been obtained at the expense of the school as a whole. Even in the best schools the proportion of the teaching power devoted to those who are likely to distinguish themselves at college seems to me to be very unfair. There is one school, which though designed for 200, has for several years past had an average attendance of less than 60; which is not

* While I write I learn that the governing body of one of the great schools has reduced the salary of its foreign master from 150*l.* to 120*l.* per annum. It is true that the school is increasing, and that in the classical department there is every desire to act liberally to the masters. But whenever economy becomes necessary, it is always supposed that modern languages, being not the proper business of the school, can suffer first.

† The resolution of the House is dated July 7, 1864. The return was ordered by the House of Commons to be printed July 5, 1865.

popular in the town, and does not rank high in any respect, but which puts forth statements showing that within the last five years six boys have distinguished themselves at college, of whom three are the master's sons. And nothing has been more impressed on me in the course of this inquiry than the wish that the public had some better guarantee for the worth of a school than is furnished by the successes of a few exceptional pupils. The lists of honours obtained at the Universities, though one criterion, is not the only one which deserves attention, and it seems to me often to bear little or no relation to the value of the work done even in good schools.

Good grammar schools very rare.

But of good schools—of schools which are influenced in any way by university distinctions or modern competition, the number in this district is very small. If I except from the list of Yorkshire endowed schools about eight, which my specific reports show to be more or less efficient, the remainder may be characterised without harshness as very feeble and worthless. And they are so in a great degree for the simple reason that they are called grammar schools. The name and the tradition imply that Greek and Latin grammar are the principal subjects taught. It is true they are not taught to any practical purpose. But this is not all. The fact that the school was founded as a classical school is constantly quoted as an excuse for the systematic neglect of all other kinds of instruction. My first business in every grammar school was to ascertain the quality and extent of its classical teaching and the proportion of children who were influenced by it. And it is manifest to me that Latin, though the one subject in which these schools profess to excel others, is as a rule taught to very little purpose.

There was a time when the smaller grammar schools could turn out scholars, whose knowledge was narrow it is true, but within a limited range, accurate and thorough. Here, for example, is an extract from the life of Matthew Robinson, a Yorkshire clergyman (temp. 1629–1694) who lived to endow a grammar school in his native village of Burneston:—

"His father sent him abroad when not seven years of old, "to a choice grammar school to which his head was more "beholden than his pined belly. And such was his ripeness of "wit that before he was nine years old he could translate any "English into true grammatical Latin and construe any familiar "author. His father perceiving it, took pleasure in trying him "with curter and more difficult Latinists as Terence and Seneca; "and did admire to see how the boy would nick off the very "sense of difficult passages, wherein others, three or four years "older, could do nothing. Thereupon his father, when he was "past 10 years old sent him to an eminent school, the better to "fit him for the University, wherein he soon surpassed all his equals.

* * * * *

"And by this course he was familiar with every poet and with "every poetical expression, so that he might have passed for a "laureat ere he was 13 years of age. In the Greek tongue also "he was as ready."

It is almost needless to say that of scholarship of this kind there

is now no trace. A boy who can read Latin with ordinary fluency is hardly to be met with. Here and there one is to be found at the head of the school who is reading Virgil; but of Latin composition, of the power to read off-hand a new passage, however simple, I have hardly found any example except in the very few great schools which I have already distinguished from the rest.

State of the average grammar schools.

In an average school of this kind I find from 30 to 50 boys, of whom about 8 or 10 are beginning to learn the Latin grammar, and three of the most advanced scholars are reading an easy author. One has perhaps begun the Greek Testament. These classical boys absorb a large proportion of the master's time. They are broken up into groups of two or three, and come up to say lessons, while the rest are preparing exercises. It is for this that the school has been founded, and to this that the head master and trustees always point when they would desire to show the superiority of their grammar school to all others in the neighbourhood. Yet the Latin is not well taught. The boys commit the grammar to memory in a more or less slovenly way. In the better schools they perhaps write a few of the early exercises in Arnold's First Book. But there is little or no oral teaching or explanation. The whole lesson is dry and mechanical. The method is one which custom has sanctioned and which the personal experience of the head master who learned his own school-lessons in this way, and who has probably continued his course as far as the University, disposes him to consider the only right way. But whether the boys of these schools are ever going to the University, or whether the seeds which he sows will ever have time to germinate, are points which are generally overlooked. The learning of Latin is regarded as an end. It is not the means to any higher end. It is not taught so as to cultivate the intelligence or so as to aid a learner in the general comprehension of language. It is memory work merely; and, as commonly taught, memory work of the most weary and unprofitable kind.

I am constantly told by the masters of grammar schools that the reason of their small attendance and their growing unpopularity is the apathy and ignorance of the parents. That the parents are vulgarly bent on money-making, that they cannot appreciate the value of Latin, that they are more anxious to get showy writing and commercial arithmetic than classical culture, are among the commonest complaints which I hear. Now, no doubt, much is needed in order to enlighten parents as to the kind of education to be desired for their sons. But, I believe that in rejecting the current teaching of Latin in the grammar schools, as unsuited for their needs, the shopkeepers and manufacturers of this district evince a true instinct. For it not merely fails to secure any direct practical purpose which they could recognize, but it equally fails to exercise any higher or indirect influence upon the training of a boy's mind, or to produce any intellectual result whatever. If it were otherwise I believe that parents would soon recognize the fact. Where the teaching of Latin is a stupid and worthless process, I am constantly told by masters that the parents desire to have their sons excused. But it is rare to find a *good* school which is not popular, and in

which the master has not full liberty to carry out his own plans. No master who is teaching Latin rationally, and in such a way as to help rather than to supersede the general mental improvement of his scholars, has ever complained to me of a want of sympathy on the part of the parents.

There is one school, conducted by a clergyman, who informed me that his numbers were decreasing; and that he attributed it to the resolute way in which he had sought to carry out the intentions of the founder, and to make it a thoroughly classical school. This determination of his was unwelcome to the people, who he said were stupid, uncultivated, and could not appreciate classical learning. On examination I found that there were in all seven Latin boys in the school. They had all read to about the 20th chapter in a little book, in which exercises in Latin to be turned into English, alternated with English to be turned into Latin. These latter exercises, however, had been omitted. The master told me that his first business was to give them a *copia verborum*, and that grammatical questions would come afterwards. I asked the boys to read the exercise which had been taken last in class. They read the Latin sentence, and then the English equivalent to it as a whole; but they could not discriminate the separate words. Not a boy in the school could write out a Latin noun, or could tell the gender or number of any word which occurred in the exercise. The eldest scholar was reading Cornelius Nepos, but was unable to answer one grammatical question. Yet here the head master had been for two years alienating the sympathies of the people in order to maintain what he called the classical character of the school; and to carry out the founders' will. I need scarcely add that the general instruction was of the lowest possible quality. Before quitting the school, I asked as usual whether the master had any fact or suggestion which he would like me to communicate to Her Majesty's Commissioners. He replied that he hoped you would take some measures for the augmentation of the salaries of masters, since it was a shame that a University man like himself should derive no better income from the endowment than a paltry 95*l.* a year, with house and garden. Examples.

In a village school, endowed with more than 200*l.* per annum, there were 50 children, of whom four boys at the head were learning Latin, and these four were arranged in three separate classes; two elder lads working together at Homer and Virgil, and each of the other two preparing every day a separate Latin exercise. The master told me that so much of his time was taken up in hearing the lessons, that he was unable to give much attention to the rest. There is an exhibition of 50*l.* per annum to Cambridge, and one of the boys was seeking to qualify himself for it. The trustees and the head master pointed with much pride to the fact that one boy from the school was now enjoying this exhibition at Cambridge, and that another would be prepared to succeed him. This was their only test of the goodness of the school. Yet it is the only school in the village. Its existence makes the establishment of a national school impossible, and its

general character is very low. The interests of the entire village are sacrificed to those of two boys, and to the fiction that it possesses a Grammar School.

In another school I found a clergyman at the head, and he told me that only one boy was learning Latin; and that he was doing so at the request of his parents, because he was intended for a druggist, and wished to know Latin enough to understand the physician's prescriptions.

I will not encumber this part of the report with other illustrations of the unreality of the professions made by the so called grammar schools. Evidence sufficient to justify the strong assertions I make on this subject will be found *passim* in the reports of my visits of inspection. I may especially call attention to the state of the schools at Penistone, at Adling Fleet, at Barnsley, at Thornton (Bradford), at Kirby Stephen, at Beverley, at Wolsingham, and at Drighlington, each of which in its own way is a conspicuous example of badness; though little below the general standard of efficiency in the smaller grammar schools.

General estimate of the classical teaching in the smaller schools.

On the whole, the classical learning prescribed by statute in the large majority of the grammar schools may be safely pronounced a delusive and unfruitful thing. It is given to very few in any form. It is not carried to any substantial issue in the case of five per cent. of the scholars. It is more often taught to keep up a show of obedience to founders' wills than for any better reason. It is so taught in the majority of cases that it literally comes to nothing. Finally, it furnishes the pretext for the neglect of all other useful learning; and is the indirect means of keeping down the general level of education in almost every small town which is so unfortunate as to possess an endowment.

The elementary teaching given in these schools.

In testing the other work of the grammar schools, I necessarily carried with me the notions I had formed during a long experience of elementary schools, such as I have been accustomed to examine for the Privy Council. My notions of what a good school should be, of the work it should do, and of the spirit which should pervade it, are mainly formed from this experience. And it is no exaggeration to say, that measured by this test, the deficiencies of the grammar schools become deplorably apparent. Leaving Latin out of the question, the attainments of the boys in the great majority of these schools are far inferior to those of the children of the same age in the average National and British schools, and their whole aspect as places of healthy work and of cheerful moral discipline, far less satisfactory. But this is a subject so important that it is well to speak of it more in detail.

Their furniture and appliances.

Even in the furniture and appliances of the schools the difference is very striking. Some of the desks are arranged round the room so that the pupils face the walls; one or two double desks run along the middle, and the scholars who sit in them look one another in the face. In both arrangements there is ample facility for copying and idleness, and none for proper supervision on the part of the master. The simple expedient of grouping together two or three parallel desks, facing the teacher, has not been

adopted into more than two or three of the grammar schools. Maps and diagrams are rare, and black-boards rarer still. In all proper equipment and teaching apparatus the average grammar school is so deficient that an inspector under the Privy Council would generally withhold the grant on the ground that the room was insufficiently furnished. And the reason is obvious; even in the richer grammar schools funds are rarely set apart for this purpose. Any money spent in improving the school fittings is necessarily deducted from the master's stipend, and therefore he has the strongest inducement to acquiesce in a state of things which otherwise he would think very unsatisfactory. Bare and dirty walls, shaky and inconvenient furniture, and outer offices which are not even decent, are rather the rule than the exception.

Their organisation.

And the clumsy arrangement of the school furniture is not without an important influence on the methods of teaching. Collective instruction is next to impossible in schools so fitted. The master sits on a throne at one end and calls up from the desks one or two boys at a time to say lessons. The arrangements of the room contemplate the learning of lessons on the boys' part, and the hearing of them on that of the master: nothing more. Nearly all that a boy does is performed at a distance from the master's eye, and may be done as slowly, as immethodically, or as dishonestly as he likes. Of the promptitude and mental activity which characterize a good elementary school, I see little or nothing in the grammar schools. The boys are told to learn, but they are seldom taught. They gain neither brightness nor stimulus from the sympathy of companionship, because they do little or none of their work in common. They cannot answer questions, because in the ordinary course of their instruction questions are never put.

It is true that organisation becomes more difficult, and in some degree less necessary as the number of pupils diminishes. But it can hardly be said to exist in the grammar schools. There are often from 20 to 40 children of all ages who are broken up into four or five classes for reading, but whose work is mainly individual. Now proper classification is scarcely possible in schools so small. A school of 70 or 80 can be better taught by two masters than a school of 25 by one. By proper classification and division of duty, far better results can be obtained, even though the second master is only of the age and rank of an assistant. But if a grammar school becomes large enough or rich enough to have a second master, it is cut boldly into two. It has little vital unity to be destroyed by this process. With schools as with animals, the lower the type of organisation the less important such vivisection becomes. Many a school has two masters, but they generally sit in separate rooms and work quite independently. They seldom or never combine their powers in the manner most advantageous for the school as a whole. In fact, very few of the contrivances for economizing time and teaching power are practised, or even understood in the grammar schools.

The supply of books often deficient.

And it is worthy of remark also that in free schools and in those in which the fees are small, there is always a deficiency of books. It is found that if a father pays a reasonable sum for schooling he does not object to pay a further sum for needful books; but if he pays nothing for instruction he does not see why he should provide any of the means of instruction. Accordingly nothing is more common than to find that there are not books enough for all to read; that many of the scholars are wholly without them, or that the text books in use are old and obsolete. The teachers of the schools tell me that they have the greatest possible difficulty to procure suitable books; and I have seen makeshift arrangements for overcoming the difficulty which were quite ludicrous and of which a pupil teacher would be ashamed.

As to school libraries, they are almost unknown in the grammar schools; and it is only in about one out of five that I have been able to discover a register of attendance.

Reading.

Even in the best of the grammar schools there is little or no attention paid to reading as an art. I do not mean to elocution, but to the ordinary practice of reading with correctness and good taste. In some of the humbler schools the New Testament is the only reading book; and the effect of this practice, both on the progress of the child in reading and on the reverence with which he regards the Word of God, is too obvious to require any comment. In many other schools the Testament is read in the lower classes, and some meagre compendium of history or geography in the higher. Even in the highest schools as soon as a boy has got over the mechanical part of the art of reading, no further attention is paid to his improvement in it. If he reads aloud at all he reads a school book, and the reading lesson is subservient to the learning of history or mythology. Books properly graduated for teaching to read,—the books of anecdote and fable, and of simple verse, which have of late years done so much to lighten the labour of elementary teachers,—are almost unknown in the grammar schools. No lessons are ever given in the art of reading *per se*, or in distinct articulation, or in just expression. It is always presumed that it is beneath the dignity of a gentleman who is teaching Latin to do work so unimportant as this. The consequence is that the reading is almost always slovenly, indistinct, and tasteless. If teachers knew how much a clear and accurate utterance has to do with distinctness of thought, and how great an influence a good style of reading has upon the sympathy with which a boy regards books, and the pleasure he derives from them, I think they would pay more attention to this matter. The speeches which are recited at the great schools on public days are not without effect in proving to boys the usefulness of fine elocution. But their influence can only be very partial, so long as the arrangements of every class in the school do not recognize good reading as an accomplishment worth attaining.

Arithmetic.

The time spent in the working of arithmetic appears to me to be wholly disproportionate to any result either intellectual or practical which is achieved in the majority of schools. A large

part of every day is spent in what is technically called "cypher-ing" or "doing sums." Each boy is required to work out a number of problems, and at certain intervals to show that he has obtained the right answer. How he does the sum, whether he understands the process, or associates any definite idea at all with the figures which fill his slate are questions which seldom occur. As soon as he has worked all the sums grouped together under one rule he is supposed to be ready for another. His progress is measured by the number of rules which he has thus gone through. I am constantly told of boys that they "have been through the tutor," or I find them working out conundrums in alligation, tare and tret, or partnership without time. If I invite these boys to form a class and to put down from my dictation an addition sum it constantly happens that from one-fourth to four-fifths are wholly unable to set down the figures in order. A question as to the difference between 49 fourpenny-pieces and 35 sixpences, or to the number of times $3\frac{1}{4}d.$ can be taken out of $4l.$ is often wholly unanswered. Boys ask helplessly what rule the sum is in. They are ready to work any question which I will set down for them in the form of a sum, but they are wholly unable to translate the language of my question into that form. In truth, of the two elements in every sum, —the thinking and the working, boys learn the latter only, and it is an exceedingly rare thing to find that any attempt is made to encourage thinking at all. I am often told by the master that if a boy's sum is wrong he is sent back until it is right. If he says he does not understand it, he is told to look at the rule. Now it need not be said here that it is quite possible to make the reason of arithmetical processes intelligible to a child; that the exercise of thought and reflection generated by such a lesson is very valuable; and that slow progress, if it is real, and if the understanding follows the work, is of far more value even for business purposes than a blind and servile use of rules which are not comprehended. All this has been long recognized in good elementary schools. There the teacher collects his scholars before entering on a new rule; works with their help a sum on the black-board; explains the reason of each process; and asks to have the significance and value of each figure pointed out. Moreover he does not rely wholly on book work even for the necessary practice in computation: but he dictates new questions; he invites the scholars to frame questions of their own; he seeks to vary as much as possible the forms in which he presents his problems; and he does not enter a new rule until he has exhausted every phase of the old one, and applied it to as many cases as he can. The effect of such teaching is twofold. The learner is not at fault when a problem is presented to him in a shape not exactly resembling those in a school book; and incidentally his power of reasoning is strongly stimulated by the habit of searching out the meaning of every rule and accounting for the presence of every figure in a sum. He employs in a humble but very effective way a mental gymnastic of the same kind, which an older student gains in mathematics. But there is little or none of this in the grammar schools. It is true that the masters some-

times tell me that they withhold such teaching on principle; that it is not good for boys to have the reason of arithmetical processes placed before them in an explicit form; that these reasons are implicit in the mechanism of the rules and will reveal themselves in due time as the boy's power of reflection increases: but all this, as I have before said, presupposes an intellectual career to which the pupils now in the grammar schools are not destined; at least it presupposes a study of algebra, which not five per cent. of the scholars ever reach. I am, however, less concerned here with these matters of opinion than with the simple fact, that three-fourths of the scholars whom I have examined in endowed schools, if tested by the usual standards appropriate to boys of similar age, under the Revised Code, would fail to pass the examination either in arithmetic or any other elementary subject.

English language.

A point in which the grammar schools are very deficient is the knowledge of the English language. Technical grammar is sometimes taught to the upper classes, but to very little purpose. The higher masters who are teaching classics seldom attempt to teach English grammar at all. The lower teach it by methods which neutralize their own object. I can conceive but two objects to be contemplated in the teaching of English grammar: -(1.) The indirect discipline which the habit of analysing words and sentences gives, and (2) its direct practical effect in teaching a pupil to speak correctly. But, as grammar is commonly taught it serves neither of those purposes. In so far as grammar is an *art* it may be doubted whether proficiency in it is ever gained from rules. The power to speak and write correctly is to be acquired, if at all, by practice. Hence, the child who is always surrounded by educated people will acquire it without formal teaching, by imitation and habit alone. He will be to a great extent independent of school. For all other children, rules are less needed than exercises: and if these be well graduated and progressive, and tolerably ample, they will furnish practice which will go far to save a learner from solecisms and to give him freedom and ease in speaking.* But in so far as grammar is a *science* it is taught for other than immediate practical purposes. Here every fact about the history of words, every law about modifications of spelling, and every technical distinction between the parts which compose a word or a sentence become of importance. For they all tend to generate thoughtfulness about language and knowledge of its principles. The best teachers say that linguistic discipline of this sort lies rather in the comparison of two languages than in the exclusive study of one. But the school-boy who merely learns the Latin or English grammar by heart obtains little or none of it. When Latin and English grammar are taught together as co-ordinate subjects, and when every distinction in the one is referred to the corresponding distinction which is either wanting or present in the other, the value of the exercise is considerable:

* In all French schools exercises calculated to give fluency and precision to the student in the use of his own language occupy a large place. They do not supersede Latin, but are regarded as its necessary concomitants.

and I have always found in these cases that progress even in Latin alone was more expeditious than when the grammar of that language was taught *per se*. But much more might easily be done by the systematic study of English, whether Latin is taught or not. I find very few teachers who seem to be aware of the capabilities of our own language as an instrument of philological drill, and fewer still who know how to turn it to good account in instruction. But in this department text-books have of late years greatly improved, and I have now and then heard lessons given on the analysis of English words and sentences, which, as examples of discipline in memory, accuracy, and keenness of discernment were scarcely inferior to the lessons which an accomplished head master gives to a sixth form in reading Thucydides or Juvenal. And for boys in secondary schools more of this teaching is much to be desired. But if English grammar is ever to take an honoured place in the curriculum of English schools the head masters must have faith in it. As a rule they undervalue its usefulness simply because their own attention has never been drawn to it. If one-half of the skill and knowledge now devoted to the teaching of the Greek and Latin classics were turned in the direction of English philology, means would soon be found* of raising this long neglected department into its rightful place.

Physical science.

And a similar remark applies to physical science. It is excluded from the course of instruction in schools, because it was excluded from the education of the masters, who naturally think that alone to be worth knowing which they themselves know. If one looks with fresh eyes at the range of modern science, at the processes by which its truths have been evolved, at the compact organised form which some parts of it have assumed; it seems impossible to doubt that here is an educational instrument of the highest value if we only knew how to use it. But the current belief among the heads of schools is that science is a collective name for all sorts of miscellaneous information, and that no amount of scientific knowledge could ever deserve the name of scholarship. This belief is not to be wondered at, considering that what passes for scientific teaching consists generally of the learning by heart of a few passages from some meagre catechism on mechanics or electricity; or else of a popular lecture illustrated by experiments. Neither the book-work nor the popular lecture alone produces satisfactory results. If they were combined judiciously, if conversational and experimental lectures were given with more system and frequency, and if each was supplemented by the exact study of some good text book bearing on the subject, physics might take an honourable

* At two recent examinations for the India Civil Service, I have had occasion to test the work of the candidates in English language and literature. There were, of course, many whose knowledge of the subject was superficial, and who had merely "got up" a few facts from manuals. But of at least one-fourth, including nearly all who were ultimately selected by the Indian Government, it may be safely said, that their study of English was a reality, had been pursued critically and with some exactness, and had served a definite educational purpose. In the examinations of the University of London, also, I have observed during several years a steady increase in the proportion of candidates who had studied the history and structure of the English language carefully. The number of teachers who know how to give a disciplinal character to such studies is increasing, but it probably does not at present include many of the masters of grammar schools.

place among modern studies. At least it would have a fair chance. But at present its capabilities are held in no esteem, simply because they have not been tried.

Leeds is the only grammar school in which I have found a resolute and systematic attempt to teach science. Here there is an excellent laboratory and a class is well drilled in chemical manipulation and analysis. Chemistry has so close a relation to the success of the woollen manufacture, that in Leeds, at least, there is no fear of its being disregarded. Accordingly, there is a demand for systematic instruction in this branch of practical science; and this demand has been judiciously met by the governing body of the school. But it is not as an educational instrument that the subject has here been taken up. It is a concession to the manufacturing needs of the town. It is pursued by the sons of manufacturers in order that they may better understand the processes of dyeing and preparing cloth. It is demanded just as navigation is demanded in a seaport town, as a commercial necessity, not as a branch of liberal education.

Religious instruction.

I have sought, with some care, to ascertain how far the need for religious instruction is recognized or urged by the parents of scholars, and on this point the testimony of teachers is almost unanimous. In sending *boarders*, parents generally stipulate that their sons shall attend church or other place of worship, and often interest themselves to inquire whether the order and habits of the school are those of a Christian household. But for *day scholars* little or none of this solicitude is expressed. There is not unfrequently a desire for the omission of religious teaching on the ground that the parents disapprove of certain tenets; but it is the rarest thing for parents to show any desire for dogmatic instruction or to make any remonstrance if such instruction is altogether omitted. In many of the grammar schools, however, religious teaching occupies a prominent place; and it ought never to be forgotten that if it retains this place, it is owing to the pious zeal of founders and of clergy, and to the sense of duty on the part of conscientious teachers, and not to the urgency of any demand on the part of those who are most nearly interested.

In nearly all the grammar schools the religious teaching is in accordance with the principles of the Church of England. In a few cases this is expressly provided for by statute,* in a still greater number it seems to be implied by the condition that the trustees shall be members of the Church of England, that the head master shall be a clergyman, or that the vicar shall be *ex officio* the chairman of the board. But in the majority of cases the usage

* In the will of Mrs. Ramsden, who in 1734 founded the school at Elland, near Halifax, the following imperative directions occur:

"I will that the master of the said school for the time being shall faithfully instruct " the children in the principles, doctrines, and precepts of the Christian religion, and " shall particularly oblige them to learn the Catechism of the Church of England, " and to repeat the same to him without book at least once in every week after they " shall have so learned, that they shall be able to repeat the same to him, and that on " such occasions he shall explain the same or some parts thereof, in a manner suited " to their capacities." Yet in this school there was no distinctive religious teaching whatever, or any of the questioning on the Catechism prescribed by the founder's will.

is rather the result of long custom than of any specific regulation. In practice, however, the stringency of the rule depends entirely on the temper and zeal of the actual administrators of the trust for the time being. I have seen the laxest practice in this respect when the terms of the will are most peremptory, whilst in the two or three schools in which dogma has been most strictly enforced, there is no statutory provision whatever to justify the exclusion of Dissenters' children.

School services.

At S. Peter's, York, there is a chapel which has been improved and beautified by the contributions of old pupils. The boys are trained to take a part in the choral service, they are instructed in sacred music by Dr. Monk, the accomplished organist of York Minster, and they have the advantage of listening to short and suitable sermons from their own head master every Sunday. Of the influence of such arrangements in quickening the religious life of the boys, and in hallowing all the traditions and recollections of the school, I need not speak. But this union of the pastoral relation with that of schoolmaster is only possible in great schools, and at this moment York and Leeds are the only two schools in the county which possess the advantage of a school chapel.*

Dogmatic teaching.

In the higher schools "divinity" includes Jewish history, the construing of the Greek Testament, and perhaps some knowledge of the history of the Church. The Catechism is taught, but rather according to the words of the Rubric as "an instruction to be learned before confirmation" than as the vehicle of theological instruction to little boys. But in the great majority of schools the religious instruction consists mainly of the repetition by heart of the Church catechism, to which is sometimes, but not frequently, added, a little knowledge of Bible history. I have constantly inquired what was the nature of the religious instruction, and what was the process by which it was given; and I have been reluctantly convinced that this is the one subject which is taught with the least intelligence and with the smallest practical result. The majority of boys learn to repeat the Catechism by heart, but are wholly unable to interpret its language; and their mode of uttering the words generally shows that they associate no meaning whatever with them. I have been repeatedly told when questioning children on the meaning of such words as "renounce," "inheritor," "sacrament;" or asking them to supply the ellipsis in the sentences,† that it was not the practice to explain the meaning of the words, and that the Catechism was an exercise of the memory only. In one school I asked the master, a clergyman, whether all the

* Richmond, though not possessing a school chapel, comes next in this respect. The head-master is the incumbent of a neighbouring church to which no parochial district is attached, and he is thus able to bring the boys to church and to have a special school service every Sunday.

† Take two questions in the Catechism :—

"(*Q.*) Dost thou not think that thou art bound to believe and to do as they have promised for thee?

(*A.*) Yes verily, and by God's help so I will. And I heartily thank our heavenly Father that he hath called me to this state of salvation, and that I may continue in the same unto my life's end.

boys had been baptised; he replied that he suspected not, he never asked the question, for he would rather not know. It was his practice to teach the Catechism to all alike, whether they had been baptised or not. In another school in which I was assured by the managers and the master that great importance was attached to Church teaching, and where I found everyone able to utter a set of sounds, inarticulate it is true, but bearing some resemblance to the answers of the Catechism; there was not one child who knew the name of his godfather, or had the smallest notion of the relationship implied by that word.

Its general character.

Many teachers in this district seem to regard the Catechism as a sort of charm or talisman, possessing a virtue quite independent of any meaning which it may convey. The learning of the words is supposed to be an end, and not the means to any higher end, intellectual or moral; and to constitute a mark or test of Churchmanship whether they are understood or not. Indeed, if it were not for the fact that all unmeaning routine tends to disgust a child and to alienate his sympathy from the subject so treated, I should say with confidence that the dogmatic teaching attempted in the large proportion of the grammar schools simply comes to nothing. It certainly has no effect in attracting boys to the English Church, or making its principles intelligible to them. And I know of few things more melancholy than to see in how many places good and able men are content to teach the highest of all subjects by methods which they have contemptuously abandoned in every other department of instruction.

Boys may, indeed, be powerfully influenced by sharing together in acts of worship, or by following out through the Christian year the meaning of the Church's lessons and services: and in great schools like that of York or Durham, where a sort of reverend ecclesiastical character pervades the place, it cannot be doubted that all the associations and the habits of the school have a lasting and salutary effect on the feelings of the pupils. And I should be sorry to undervalue the effect of the simple and affecting services at which I have been present at morning or evening prayer in school households. The religious *discipline* of the better boarding schools is a reality; but the religious *instruction* of the mass of day schools is just the reverse. It gives to the memory a set of obsolete words; but it offers nothing to the understanding, and still less to the feeling or the conscience. In many places it is but too plain that there is a sort of religious teaching, which while it appears on the one hand to be worth contending for by clergy and

(*Q.*) What is the inward spiritual grace?

(*A.*) A death unto sin and a new birth unto righteousness, for being by nature born in sin and the children of wrath, we are hereby made the children of grace."

Now in each of these cases the answer is only part of a sentence and has no meaning, *in se*; its completion and all the words which give it significance being contained in the question. But the child is never called on to learn the question by heart. What he learns is by itself an unmeaning fragment, and I have scarcely ever found one who could supply the remaining words, or make up a sentence of any kind from the portion which he has learned.

trustees; and on the other hand suffices to irritate Dissenters and to give a general impression that the school is in the hands of a party, is yet insufficient to produce any educational result whatever, whether for good or evil.

Instances.

In one school I had occasion to ask the master in the presence the trustees some questions respecting the religious instruction. He replied that his was essentially a Church of England school, and that every child was required to learn the Catechism. I asked if any exception was ever made, and was informed that one or two children of dissenters had been excused from this lesson at the request of their parents. These boys, however, were not foundation or free boys. Had they been so the remonstrances of the parents would not have been listened to. But since they were paying scholars, the master did not like to run the risk of their removal. The trustees seemed to acquiesce in this arrangement, although they told me in the case of all children who were gratuitously educated by the charity, they would feel it their duty to insist on Church teaching.

At another school in which there is a very marked separation between the free scholars and those who pay; I found the most stringent arrangements for the attendance of the scholars at church on Sundays and saints' days, and for the education of the children in the Church catechism. But the master told me that these rules only applied to the free boys; that to enforce them on the rest would be offensive to the parents and would lead to the diminution of his income. Hence all the religious instruction was confined to the free boys. The others learned neither Catechism nor Bible.

The religious difficulty.

These are not the only instances in which dogmatic instruction in the principles of the Church of England has come to be regarded by the poor as a penal infliction from which their richer neighbours may purchase exemption as a privilege. And the only cases in this district in which I have found a rigid enforcement of the Catechism against the wishes of the parents have been schools for the poor and free scholars. In schools where boys pay good fees there is little or no exclusiveness. The three or four great schools in this district are in the hands of earnest churchmen and are characterised by earnest church teaching; but I have found in them the children of Catholics and of Unitarians, and I know that the wishes of such parents have been considerately met. The Church catechism or dismissal is not an alternative with which parents in the middle or upper ranks of life are ever confronted in a good school. It is only the poor and dependent who are forced to accept it. It is mainly for them that the protection of a "Conscience Clause" is needed, and this reason makes it all the more incumbent on a wise and generous Legislature to provide one. In this district there is a strong wish for the legal enforcement of some such provision on all the grammar schools. The general belief that the endowments are administered in the interests

of Churchmen exclusively is one great reason for their unpopularity, especially among Dissenters. It has been repeatedly urged upon me that if it was right and necessary to throw open the Universities, it was as illogical as it was unjust to persist in an exclusive policy in the management of those institutions which are meant as the nurseries of the Universities.

Not to be solved by the "secular" or by the "comprehensive" system.

All recent legislation has proceeded on the principle that the benefit of ancient endowments should not be limited to those who profess a particular creed. And it is evident that in the West Riding of Yorkshire, where dissent greatly abounds, if grammar schools are to do the work for which they were designed they must be open on terms which do not exclude the child of a Dissenter. There are three possible solutions to this difficulty. (1) The religious teaching may be altogether omitted; (2) it may be of a catholic or unsectarian kind, including the scriptures only, but no Creed or Catechism; or, (3) it may be based on the Liturgy and teaching of the Church of England, but may allow of the absence from such teaching of all those whose parents record an objection in writing. Of these, the first or "secular" plan evades the religious difficulty, it is true; but when hardened into a system it not only alienates the sympathies of most religious men, but it produces injurious effects on the boys, for it obliges a pious schoolmaster to be silent on the one subject which he feels to be most important. And I have met in my inquiries with very few parents or managers who expressed the least wish for it. The second or "comprehensive" system is more feasible in schools, and coincides much more nearly with the actual practice even in good Church schools than is generally supposed. But it is theoretically very difficult to define such teaching, and the definition, if made, would sometimes press heavily on the conscience of a religious man. There are few persons who express a desire for such an arrangement; because there are few who can conceive the possibility of a real religious teaching which explains the Bible and teaches children to love it and to accept it as the guide of their lives; and yet which does not give lessons on those points of doctrine and of Church government on which different bodies of Christian Englishmen are not agreed. The third system, that of a Church of England School with a "Conscience Clause," would, I believe, meet the wants and wishes of the people of this district generally. Dissenters avail themselves freely of the schools in which it prevails; and the occasions on which they use their right of withdrawing their children from the ordinary teaching of the school are very rare. But they value the liberty of taking their children with them on a Sunday; and in just the proportion in which they feel earnestly on religious matters they would rebel against any attempt to enforce the teaching of a creed without their consent.

But by church teaching with a "Conscience Clause."

On the other hand it must be admitted that this solution to the difficulty would not always be satisfactory to the governing bodies; and that some of the clergy who are most earnest in their efforts to promote education, entertain strong objections to

it. Thus one clergyman, who is the principal trustee of the endowed grammar school in his parish, writes to me as follows :—

"The Dissenters do not seem to object to the words of the catechism, "though some of them do not like to hear questions asked as to its meaning. "If its teaching seems strange to them, it is chiefly because their own religious "views, though not put into words, are different from all existing standards "of doctrine, and have come down to them from the indifferentism of the 18th "century. But if those who liked might withdraw their children from the "teaching of the catechism, some perhaps might do so chiefly because they "think the children learn enough religion at home without going to school "for it. Every one who knows the bulk of the parents knows that even if "they wanted to teach them religion they could not do it. Their children, "therefore, would certainly lose all religious teaching of any value. But the "effect on the others would be still worse. When some were taken away from "religious teaching the rest would lose all interest in it. Practically upon all "open questions the belief of the body of the people falls down to the lowest "point. When some take one view and others a different one, most people "believe what is easiest; so if some openly disbelieved the church catechism, "the rest would lose any belief in it which they might be brought to have."

The assumption here that all other belief than that of the Church of England consists of mere negations, is scarcely verified by experience. The objections to the enforcement of the catechism. which have been urged upon me in this district have come, I am bound to say, from many persons of very strong convictions, and with very definite views about religion.* And in the prospect of such measures of improvement as may render the grammar schools more valuable, it seems more important than ever to make them accessible on equitable terms to all classes of the community, and more cruel than ever to assume that it is only the irreligious and the indifferent who object to the church catechism.

The Charity Commission has introduced a conscience clause into nearly all the recent schemes which it has sanctioned. The reasons for enforcing it are closely analogous to those on which the Education Committee of Privy Council justify a similar procedure. That body, as is well known, only enforces it in those cases in which there is only room for one school in a parish. If there be population enough to justify the erection of two rival schools, the founders of each are at liberty to make it as exclusive as they like. But the endowed school is generally without any rival. In a small village it is often the only school ; in a larger place it is the only secondary or middle school ; in all places it is the only school of its kind, and possesses, or ought to possess, special advantages of its own. The grievance of excluding the children of Dissenters is therefore far more serious in the Grammar schools, as a whole, than in the ordinary National

* Nothing is more common among the clergy than to take for granted that there is no "definite" religious teaching except in their own schools. This is a great mistake. I have seen a great many church schools ; and I have had especial opportunities of knowing the inner working of some scores of British, Wesleyan, and other non-Church of England schools. And I am convinced that, setting aside the catechism, the religious knowledge in the latter class of schools receives fully as much attention as in the former, that the bible is quite as frequently read, and that its main facts and lessons are not less diligently taught and definitely understood.

schools. I have already said that the protection of a conscience clause is not often invoked, but the spirit which renders it necessary has not ceased to exist.* And it is the exceptional cases which furnish the measure of its necessity.

The clergy as schoolmasters.

Closely connected with this subject is another which has been frequently brought before me in the course of this investigation: I mean the general employment of the clergy as schoolmasters. Tradition, and the express words of the founders, combine to point out the clergy as the suitable teachers, not only for higher posts, but also for many of the lower. This district contains some striking examples of the advantages of placing a clergyman at the head of a great school. He has often a weight derived from his clerical character which acts most beneficially on his work as a schoolmaster. And the increased confidence which parents are apt to feel in placing their sons under the moral supervision of a minister of religion is not only very natural, but is fully justified by experience. Moreover, the care of a great boarding-school, though laborious, is attended with profits so large, and gives a sphere of religious influence so important, that it has its attraction for men of the highest character and qualification. But these considerations do not apply to the smaller day schools nor to the lower masterships in the great schools. When a post of this kind yields an income of less than 250*l.* per annum, and is filled by a clergyman, it is either in the hands of a young man who takes it as a temporary resource, and is looking for preferment; or in those of an elder man of inferior stamp and of no ambition. And I cannot express my sense of the unsuitableness of both classes of men for the work which is often undertaken by them in the endowed schools. Four of the worst schools I ever saw in my life were conducted by clergymen. They were nominally

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* "Have you any Dissenters in your parish?—Yes. What is their present position "with regard to education?—They have no school. They had a school not long "ago, but it is gone; my parish is a small parish, and there are not a great number "of Dissenters in it. My rule, which I observe strictly and always shall observe with "regard to all schools in my hands is, that I do not admit any child unless that "child has been baptized in the Church of England, and therefore those children, "unless their parents are prepared to bring them to baptism in the Church of "England, would not be admitted into my school.

"Do I understand you to state that you have no objection to admit into your school "the child of any Dissenter provided that child has been baptized?—That is all. "But when the child is there, do you make it a condition that he shall learn the "whole Catechism and shall attend your church on Sundays?—Yes. * * * "I would much rather be without a school individually than have a school conducted "on another principle (that of the 'Conscience Clause'). I do not think you would "do any real good, because, I think, you would only be doing what a great man once "said when he was applied to about the education matter, 'What are you going to "do? Are you going to make clever devils of your children'? I believe that you "may do such a thing as that, and you certainly will do it, unless you bring up the "children in a distinct dogmatic faith.

"Do I understand you to say that your own duty as a Christian minister would "be to allow the families of Dissenters who refused to accept these terms to grow up "in a state of utter ignorance?—Certainly. I would leave them to their parents to "be taught religion, *and as to reading, writing, and arithmetic, I think that without "religion they are better without them.*"—(Archdeacon Denison's Evidence before Sir J. Pakington's Committee on Education, 1865. pp. 216–223.)

grammar schools, but no Latin or Greek was taught in them. They were the only schools in their respective villages, and they were filled with the children of the poor. As to methods and results, the work was such as would have disgraced a pupil teacher in his first year. A clergyman attempting to do the work of an elementary teacher is always in a false position; he rarely does it well, or possesses much sympathy with beginners. His habits of mind unfit him for small details, and for the drudgery of elementary work. He has seldom studied the art of teaching. Indeed, he generally looks down with contempt on the methods by which a trained teacher would win the attention of his pupils; and thinks not unnaturally that his own university standing makes him independent of such artifices. And if it be contended that there is an indirect educational influence proceeding from the mere presence of a gentleman and a scholar among a number of boys; experience will reply that however precious this influence might be in other circumstances, it is practically neutralized when the duties he undertakes are distasteful and are badly discharged. A master who feels his work to be beneath him, and who is always showing that he thinks so; whose temper is acidulated by a dislike to his profession, and by the consciousness of failure in it, has parted with all power to ennoble or refine his pupils. The boy who is compelled for six hours a day to see his countenance and listen to his voice is doubly unfortunate: for he not only gets little technical instruction, but he loses in animation and mental activity; and acquires a permanently lowered standard of the worth of knowledge and of the spirit in which it should be acquired.

It can scarcely be doubted that as education improves and becomes more generally appreciated, the scholastic office will attract year by year a higher class of men—men who have been specially trained for the work of a schoolmaster, and who adopt that calling not as a temporary expedient, and as a stepping-stone to preferment in another profession; but as an honourable profession in itself,—one in which they desire to spend their lives. If the day ever comes in which men are specially trained for the work of teaching in our higher schools, and are qualified for that work by methods which, *mutatis mutandis*, are similar to those now so successfully adopted in the training colleges for elementary teachers; such men will have a far better title to some of the highest posts in the endowed schools than is conferred either by priests' orders or the M.A. degree. In all educational reforms it may be well to anticipate that time and to provide for it.

Certificated masters.

In many of the humbler schools, when the founders' will does not imperatively forbid the arrangement, certificated masters have been introduced with excellent effect. In some schools of a somewhat higher type, the trustees have obtained a scheme under the sanction of the Charity Commissioners which permits them to have a superior trained man instead of a clergyman. Thus at Drax the new scheme has allowed the trustees to do this. They selected one of the best of the national schoolmasters in the district, who had been remarkably successful in a large school, and who was also

well qualified to teach Latin. He has completely invigorated this important school, which, though it has ceased to claim an exclusive character as a grammar school, is doing excellent work for the whole village, and is yet imparting sound knowledge of Latin and literature to the few upper boys who stay long enough to avail themselves of it.* I cannot doubt that a similar experiment might be tried with great advantage in many schools. There are some holders of Government certificates of merit who are persons of superior cultivation and knowledge, and who have pursued their own studies to a point far beyond the requirements of the certificate examination. To these men, if they have given evidence of practical success in schoolkeeping, the masterships of the smaller endowed grammar schools would be objects of legitimate ambition, and it seems very desirable that the way should be cleared for their employment in such offices. At present the statutes of the schools furnish a hindrance to the adoption of such a measure; while the fact that such posts are not accessible to trained teachers discourages many men of superior ability from obtaining certificates.

There is another serious hindrance to the employment of trained teachers in grammar schools. The training colleges are largely sustained by a Parliamentary grant, and this grant is made exclusively for primary education and for the children of the poor. The Education Department is therefore obliged, by the very terms of its existence, to discourage the removal of trained teachers from elementary to upper schools. Under present regulations the authorities of a training college cannot secure a grant for the education of a teacher unless they can prove to the Committee of Council that he has been actually engaged for a period of two years, at least, in a school under inspection. They, therefore, are bound to prevent their students from accepting other posts; and it is only by accident and by irregular means that a few trained teachers find their way into the grammar schools. Whether Parliament would remove the difficulty by sanctioning the employment of some part of the grant for the training of middle-class teachers, or by allowing such teachers to enter existing normal schools on paying the whole expense of their training remains to be seen; but the need of some such provision is very pressing. Nothing is more likely to raise the status of the grammar schools than a supply of a race of better qualified men for the lower posts. At present there is great difficulty in obtaining assistance, which is at once economical and efficient. If the agency happens to be economical it is never efficient; if efficient it is never economical. The masters of the humbler schools are often men who would not have been able to obtain posts as National schoolmasters, and who belong to the class from which the village teacher of 30 years ago was drawn—the class of idle and unsuccessful tradesmen or mechanics. The

* The vicar of the parish says in a letter to me :—

"I have known the school for nearly eleven years and under two different systems of "management; and can truly say that as it is *at present* conducted it is calculated "under God to be a real blessing to my parish. I attribute the change for the better "which has taken place in a great measure to the fact of our having a first-class "*trained* master instead of a clergyman as formerly."

assistants are often young men of the "usher" stamp, possessed of a little knowledge of Latin, but wholly untrained in any other way.

Boarding schools have some manifest advantages, which I need not here discuss. In the great schools which possess famous traditions, and in which the pupils for the most part come from the houses of gentlemen, there is a tone of manners and a sentiment of honour which go far to develop a manly character among the boys, and to neutralize the disadvantages of a too early withdrawal from the shelter of home. Few boys can breathe such an atmosphere without being strengthened by it. But, as we descend lower in the social scale, the value of a boarding school as a place for the formation of character appears to me to be less. The schools are smaller, they have little or no history, and the average tone of manners and of thinking in them is not very elevating. As a rule, a boy is better off who attends a good day school and comes home to prepare his lessons and to spend his leisure with his parents and sisters, than if he becomes a boarder at an ordinary school. The great want of this district is that of good day-schools. Wherever the population of a district suffices within a radius of four miles to yield a total of 100 boys requiring secondary instruction there a good school ought to flourish even without boarders. Boarding schools.

Boarding schools are, however, necessary evils, and it is because they supply an actual want that they flourish so generally. In the rural districts farmers and others cannot hope to have day schools within easy reach, and their only chance of obtaining the education which they want is in sending the boys to boarding schools. There are many other parents who, from pre-occupation, from inability to control their children, or from unwillingness to take the necessary trouble, desire to rid themselves from the burden of their management. Their *raison d'être.*

And while it is the interest of certain parents to send their sons to schools as boarders, it is no less the interest of schoolmasters to receive pupils on these terms. For the profits on boarders, as I shall hereafter show, are very large. There are cases in this district in which the nominal income of the head masters is more than doubled in this way. And there are many schoolmasters of distinguished ability who would probably not remain in the profession if the opportunity for making these profits were taken away. It is the right to take boarders which constitutes the great attraction of the schoolmaster's office. And if a gentleman, otherwise highly qualified, also possesses the administrative power necessary for the government of a great household, and is skilful and watchful in the domestic supervision; the gain to the pupils is so considerable that his large profits are fairly earned, and constitute one of the legitimate rewards in a profession which offers but few prizes, and is at best one of labour and anxiety.

Yet for the wise administration of a large household qualities are needed which do not always accompany high scholarship or teaching power. The master of a large boarding-school must be Not necessarily well managed even by good teachers.

able to bargain with tradesmen, to control a large staff of servants, and to organise all the complex details of a great household on an economical scale. It suffices, in some cases, if the master's wife possesses these gifts; but it often happens that neither is able to bear the burden; and at this moment, out of 35 schools in the district, provided with houses designed for boarders, thirteen have no boarders and six others have but three each. There are six or seven of the most important schools with houses well adapted for boarders —schools which are largely dependent for their success on the introduction of this class of pupils, but in which the returns show that none are now resident, "for domestic reasons." Into the nature of these reasons I have not thought it right to inquire; but it is to be regretted that the intention and usefulness of a school should be frustrated because the master, who may be an admirable teacher, does not possess the skill of a lodging-house keeper, or because his wife is unwilling to neglect her family and to sacrifice to his professional success all the happiness and repose of her home.*

At present it is left very much to accident whether a school is a successful boarding school or not. In the selection of a master, trustees are properly guided by testimony as to his general ability and teaching power. They have no means of knowing whether he is also endowed with the peculiar personal gifts required in the management of a house. Yet there are many schools so circumstanced that without boarders they must completely fail. It seems necessary in these cases to make some provision which shall be permanently independent of accidents.

The "hostel system."

Archbishop Holgate's school in York.

The 'hostel' system which is adopted at Marlborough and Rossall has only been very partially introduced into this district, but its results have been very satisfactory. In Archbishop Holgate's school, in York† great efforts have been made by the governing body to reduce the cost of instruction and of boarding to a minimum, in order to make the school accessible on the lowest possible terms to the sons of farmers and others of similar position. These efforts have been very successful. The number of pupils in the school has so increased that arrangements are in progress for a considerable extension of the building. The

* "My wife, my once darling Anna, is the wife of a schoolmaster. When I married "her, I expressed my fears that I was bringing her into a way of life unsuitable to "her; and she who loved me tenderly, promised for my sake to exert herself to per- "form the duties of her new situation. She promised and she has kept her word. My "house is managed with a propriety and a decorum unknown in other schools; my "boys are well-fed, look healthy, and have every proper accommodation, and all this is "performed with a careful economy that never descends to meanness. But I have "lost my gentle *helpless* Anna. When we sit down to enjoy an hour of repose after "the fatigue of the day, I am compelled to listen to what have been her really useful "employments through the day and what she proposes for her to-morrow's task. "Her heart and her features are changed by her situation. To the boys she never "appears other than the *master's wife*, and she looks up to me as the *boys' master*, to "whom all show of love and affection would be highly improper, and unbecoming "the dignity of her station and mine. Yet this, my gratitude forbids me to hint to "her. For my sake she submitted to be this altered creature, and can I reproach her "for it?"—*Charles Lamb's Essays*, "The Old and the New Schoolmaster."

† *See* the evidence of H. S. Thompson, Esq., on the subject of this school. *See* also the evidence of Sir J. K. Shuttleworth on the proposed establishment of the "hostel" system at Giggleswick.

total charges for tuition have been fixed at 6*l.* per head, and those for boarding at 22*l.* No one obtains any profit. There are a steward and a housekeeper; and the bills are regularly audited and paid by the trustees. The following statements with which I have been favoured by Mr. Gutch, the clerk to the trustees, will show the result of the experiment, and I will only add to it from my personal observation that the boys are well fed and cared for, and have every needful comfort.

"In 1864 the number of scholars varied from 74 to 81, the average being "77.25 while the boarders varied from 58 to 62; the average on the four quarters "being 60. In 1865 the number of scholars varied from 99 to 121, the "average on the four quarters being 110.25, while the boarders varied from 76.5 "to 94, the average being 85.

"The cost of tuition and boarding for the years 1864 and 1865 were as "follows:

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
1864, tuition	851	1	6	average per head	11	0	4
1865, „	1,023	17	0	„	9	5	8
1864, boarding	1,205	16	5	„	20	2	0
1865, „	1,596	18	1	„	18	15	9

"From the above you will see that the 6*l.* per head capitation fee, which is "all that the scholars pay for tuition, has not been nearly sufficient to cover the "cost of that; while the 22*l.* per head paid for boarding has been more than "sufficient to pay the cost of the boarding establishment. Of course I have "excluded from the latter any charge for the cost of the school buildings "where the boarders and officers sleep, and, in like manner, the cost of tuition "includes nothing for the cost of the schoolroom, playgrounds, &c. The cost "of furnishing the boarding establishment is also not taken into consideration, "but the accounts paid in for removals, &c., are included."

The school, it should be added, is at work 42 weeks in the year.

Drax. At Drax, a part of the endowment is available for the board and education of 12 free scholars, who are chosen by the trustees and who are the children of respectable but poor parents in the village. They lodge in the house of the head master, who provides for them, and receives from the trustees 20*l.* per head for doing so. Yet, though the provision is sufficient, a profit is made out of this sum, and the head master considers that the arrangement makes an appreciable addition to his income.

The "Friends' school at Ackworth. At the Friends' School at Ackworth 274 children,—154 boys and 120 girls,—are educated, boarded, and clothed. The arrangements, though scrupulously economical, are not those of a charity school. They are adapted for the sons and daughters of respectable persons in middle life. Ample provision is made for health, comfort, and effective teaching. The committee have favoured me with the following statements, showing the average cost of each child; including every expense, except, of course, the interest of the money expended in the original purchase of the buildings and grounds:

	£	s.	d.
Clothing	3	2	1
Provisions, washing, and household expenses	10	12	3
Salaries and wages	7	18	7
Repairs, furniture, stationery, and taxes	3	14	10
Total cost per head	£25	6	9

Woodhouse Grove.

The Woodhouse Grove school for the sons of Wesleyan ministers is under the care of the connexion. Since it is maintained out of a common fund, administered by Wesleyan preachers, and since the cost of educating their sons is credited to each minister as a part of his salary, there is every inducement to keep down the expenses. The boys live generously, the building is amply furnished with educational appliances, and there is a good staff of accomplished masters. I find that the entire expenses of this establishment, including rates, taxes, salaries, provisions, and all miscellaneous items, amount to about 3,800*l.* per annum, or less than 28*l.* per head for each of the 140 scholars.

Rishworth.

At Rishworth, near Halifax, the same experiment has been tried, with the following results. There are 55 boys and 15 girls who are maintained and educated. There is a clergyman at the head, assisted by three resident masters and visiting teachers, a schoolmistress, matron, house servants, and an out-door labourer. The whole expenditure is under the eye of the committee, who examine all the accounts monthly. They compute the expense per head during 41 weeks in which the school is open, for boarding at 6*s.* 4*d.* per week, and for tuition at 4*s.* 3*d.* per week. Thus the annual cost of each child to the trustees is 21*l.* 13*s.* 11*d.*, viz., 12*l.* 19*s.* 8*d.* for board, and 8*l.* 14*s.* 3*d.* for tuition. This estimate is exclusive of interest on original outlay, and of the sums spent in repairs and furnishing.

These details will suffice to show the cost price of board and housekeeping in well-organised schools which are sufficiently large to allow of a proper economy in management. They furnish an approximate estimate of the profits which are obtainable by teachers who take boarders as a private speculation. Since some of the expenses of a house are constant, the cost per head is in inverse proportion to the numbers admitted to a school. It is the custom in some of the more important schools to charge from 40*l.* to 70*l.* per annum for boarding alone. But boys in the upper ranks of life do not eat more than in the lower. Nor is it the custom to give them much better food. It may safely be concluded in general terms that whenever the number of boarders exceeds ten, any excess over 24*l.* per head per annum may be reckoned as clear profit even in a private house which is managed on a liberal scale.

The influence of boarders in the teaching of the day school.

The influence of the presence of boarders upon the general tone of the day school and upon the town boys is much discussed here, and I find considerable conflict of opinion on the point, for in each town the inhabitants quote the experience of their own school as a fair type of other places. Thus at Pontefract, Giggleswick, Sedbergh, and other places, great dissatisfaction was felt at the absence of boarders. The townspeople seemed to believe that whatever made the school larger would make it more famous and efficient, and that some advantage to the town boys would arise from their association with lads of a different class who come from a distance. Town councillors and tradesmen are also not insensible to the pecuniary advantage of the expenditure of a number

of boys in a small place. On the other hand at Burnsall, at Keighley, and at Pocklington, complaints were made that the boarders were too numerous, that they absorbed too much of the master's time, and that the advantages of the endowment were unfairly appropriated by foreigners. At Pocklington it was urged as a grievance that the exhibitions to S. John's College (of which the school possesses four of the value of 40*l.* per annum, tenable for three years) were always obtained by boarders; that lads were induced by the head master to come from a distance in order to obtain them; and that, with a single exception, no Pocklington boy had gained one for many years. I could not, however, find any instance of a town boy who had been unfairly superseded, or from whom any teaching or encouragement had been withheld: and it was evident that if the distinctions honourably won in open competition had been gained by boys of one class only, it was simply because they had been able to remain longer in the school, or had evinced greater ability. It is certain, however, that the fear lest the master should withdraw his attention from pupils who pay little or nothing, to those who board with him and pay well, is not wholly groundless. But this is a danger not to be met by any public arrangement. It must rather be guarded against by the governing body of each school, acting in view of the special circumstances of its own case.

How far the endowments are available for girls.

It is impossible to make a general survey of the state of the ancient educational endowments of this district without being struck with the fact of the total exclusion of girls from all their advantages. The universal practice is to assume that all endowments for higher education were meant for boys only, but that if a school is intended for primary instruction girls may be admitted. This assumption is endorsed by long usuage, but it is certainly not justified by the literal interpretation of the founder's will.

After carefully examining the statutes and testaments by which the schools profess to be governed, I find that in the whole district there are only four schools from which female scholars are expressly excluded. In the letters patent of Edward VI. establishing Sedbergh school it is said to be for the instruction of "boys and young men." The foundation deed of Skipton, which is of the same date, distinctly specifies boys. The statutes of S. Peter's, at York, which are of the date of Philip and Mary, are not explicit, but since they evidently contemplate the training of choristers and priests, it may be fairly presumed that the school was for boys only. And the Knaresborough school, which was founded in the time of James I., is expressly limited to the boys of two parishes. In all the other cases the language of the founders' is vague. There is not a word in the deeds of Giggleswick, Bingley, Pontefract, Sheffield, Tadcaster, or either of Archbishop Holgate's foundations, to indicate the sex of the pupils. A grammar school is to be founded and that is all. At Batley, Bradford, Halifax, Wakefield, and Aldmonbury, the phrase employed is "children

and youth." At Leeds "youths and children." At Hipperholme "scholars and children:" at Ripon "children and young men." In nearly all other cases the words employed to describe the recipients of the charity are simply "children of inhabitants," "poor scholars," &c. It is needless to say that language of this kind has always been interpreted unfavourably to girls. Whenever statutes are thus vague, and whenever, as in the cases of Doncaster and Rotherham,, all traces of the founder's will have been lost, it is assumed that the education given in the grammar school is intended for the children of one sex only; and unfortunately the means of determining the real intention of the founders on this point no longer exist. It is at least a fair conjecture that where exclusion was not expressed it was not intended; and that in the absence of any distinction between the curriculum for boys and for girls, it was considered possible for the intellects of both to be trained together. At any rate the theory which assigns Greek and Latin to boys, and modern languages and accomplishments to girls, is essentially novel, and is not to be found in the statutes of any school. When boys and girls happen to be mentioned, one course of instruction is prescribed without exception or limitation. Thus, at Guiseley, the founder stipulated that 16 poor boys and girls of Rawdon Chapelry should be instructed in reading, writing, arithmetic, and *Latin*. At Easingwold 30 boys and 30 girls are to be taught Latin, English grammar, reading, writing, arithmetic, and book-keeping. No Latin is now taught in either school, and I have been unable to discover any traditions of the time when girls actually received instruction in Latin in any of the schools of the district.

Rishworth.

There is only one endowed school in which an attempt is made to give to girls any instruction of a higher kind than that of an elementary school; but Rishworth is an eleemosynary foundation, and receives pupils who are boarded and lodged as well as educated gratuitously. It is therefore an exceptional case. Here are two schools, an upper school for 30 boys who receive a classical education, and a preparatory school in which there are 25 boys and 15 girls. These girls are well taught by a governess who devotes her whole time to them, and they enjoy the great advantage of association with an institution which is under scholarly and wise management. But it may be doubted even here whether the will of the founder has not been interpreted somewhat too favourably to the interests of one sex. In 1724 John Wheelwright bequeathed money for the maintenance of two schoolmasters, and for the lodging, boarding, and instructing of 20 children, of whom, without defining the exact proportions, he said that the majority were always to be boys. But the resources of this charity have greatly increased, and its present gross revenue amounts to 2,915*l.* per annum. The trustees have enlarged the basis of the institution, and have obtained a new scheme for its management. There are now 55 boys and 15 girls. There are three exhibitions of 50*l.* each, for boys of the upper school. The boys are retained till 16 years of age and receive an education adapted to prepare them for

the University. The girls, however, are required to quit school at 14. A plain domestic education is provided for them, and each receives the sum of 10*l.* as an apprentice fee, to be applied for use on going into service, at the discretion of the trustees. Wheelwright's will assumes that the children are to be instructed together, and provides that Latin and Greek shall be taught to such of the boys as shall be fit to learn it. But his successors have allowed the whole of the upper school teaching to be appropriated by boys, and the girls now form a minority in the lower school only. The conditions of his bequest would have been fulfilled if there had been eleven boys and nine girls all receiving the highest education which they were capable of obtaining, and all remaining to the same age. But the present scheme, while it contemplates a liberal education for boys, assumes that all the girls are to be apprentices or servants. It does not offer even to one of these girls, though some of them are the children of professional men, and all of persons in a respectable position, the opportunity of qualifying herself as a governess or of proceeding to a place of higher education. It cannot be doubted that this splendid institution might do much more for the education of girls whose parents are above the rank of the labourer; but it is nevertheless the only endowed school in the district which attempts to do anything for them whatever.

Girls only admitted when the foundation ceases to be a grammar school.

It is only when the endowed school loses its classical character and sinks down to the condition of a village school, that it opens its doors to admit girls. I have found several examples of this. At Ilkley, one of the benefactors of the school, though not the founder, limits the use of his bequest to the "male children" of the parish. Yet, when I visited the place it had become a mixed school in which nothing beyond the barest rudiments was learned by either girls or boys. At Fishlake, at Dent, and in other places, the admission of girls, though confessedly an innovation, had been allowed *because* the school had ceased to give higher education and had become virtually a National school. Yet it is observable that the advantages gained by girls in these humble schools are very small. If a mixed school is under Government inspection the grant is obtainable only on condition that needlework is regularly taught, and that due provision is made in the building and playground, as well as in the course of instruction, for the requirements of female children. But no such provision is ever made in an endowed school not under inspection. The girls who are admitted into such schools by sufferance, cannot be said to receive a privilege. For the endowment which hinders the establishment of a National school in a village acts as a positive privation to them. There is no complaint I have heard more frequently from the clergy than this: "I want to get up a girl's "school. But, as we have trust funds for education, people will "not subscribe. There is scarcely room for two schools in my "parish, and a mixed school on a proper footing would meet "our wants. The constitution of the endowed school makes it

" unsuitable for the admission of girls; while its existence is a " reason for not building a new one."

"Mixed" schools.

In the North of England "mixed schools" are more common and are less objected to by parents than in the South. It is not only in the small villages, where the mixed school is an economical necessity, but in large towns, where separation would be easy if it were desired, that I have found excellent elementary schools in which boys and girls were instructed together up to the age of 14. In such schools I often find that the girls gain in mental activity, and the boys in refinement by their association in the same class under proper supervision. But this is an experiment which has only been tried in elementary schools and among the children of the labouring class. It has not been tried in this district with children of a higher grade.* And I find no disposition to try it. That it may have a fair chance it must be undertaken by trained men who have seen the working of the Scotch system, who have faith in it, and who know how to take the precautions which are needed in it. But the habits and tendencies of modern society are, on the whole, adverse to the introduction of the mixed system; and it is therefore obvious that if any part of the present educational endowments is to be diverted to the use of girls, it must be devoted to the foundation of separate institutions or departments. It will be necessary to speak again of the need which exists in this district for a larger and higher education for girls. It must suffice here to recapitulate the simple facts,—that the great educational endowments do nothing to supply this need; that the exclusion of girls from all the advantages of the grammar school is the result of long established tradition and usage, and not, with one or two exceptions, of any express provision by the founders; that this usage has been broken only in those cases in which the education offered was worthless; and that neither the good nor the bad grammar schools, as at present constituted, are well adapted to give instruction to the sisters of those who are at present enjoying their educational advantages.

General conclusions respecting the instruction in the endowed schools.

The general conclusions to which a survey of the endowed schools has led me, may be thus epitomized:—

(1.) That the supply of classical instruction, while it greatly exceeds the demand, is, with a few exceptions, of very indifferent character.

(2.) That the statutory obligation to teach Latin and Greek, though seldom fulfilled to any practical purpose, serves in many cases as a pretext for the neglect of the indispensable elements of instruction in other departments.

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* *i.e.* Not tried on a large or public scale. I have visited two very well conducted private schools in which boys and girls of the middle class were instructed together. But the conductors of these schools are trained men who have made David Stow's methods the objects of careful and sympathetic study.

(3.) That, in regard to school appliances, as well as in organization, method, and intelligence, the smaller endowed schools are generally inferior to National schools.

(4.) That, nevertheless, their existence hinders the establishment of such National schools: and thus deprives many towns and villages altogether of proper elementary teaching; of the advantages of inspection; and of the sympathy and supervision of persons who would otherwise subscribe and feel an interest in the progress of the scholars.

(5.) That the endowed school system is particularly cruel in its action on the education of girls; for that, whenever the education is worth anything, they are altogether excluded; while the only schools to which they are admitted, are of the humblest class, wholly unfurnished with proper provision for doing the work of mixed schools.

(6.) That some means are urgently required for providing in grammar schools a better class of assistants.

(7.) That the boarding arrangements in at least half of the grammar schools are unsatisfactory, and that the admission of boarders in the same school with town boys who are free, is nearly always detrimental to the interests of the latter.

Proposed Measures of Improvement.

Remedies.

It will be seen from the instances which I have cited, and still more clearly from an examination in detail of the record of my personal visits to the Yorkshire schools, how unlikely it is that any one general remedy will adapt itself equitably to all cases. The proposals to which I am about to draw attention have all been suggested to me, and have been the subject of discussion with trustees. Nothing has become clearer to me during this investigation, than the fact that any sweeping or Procrustean measure will do great injustice. There are a few schools which require nothing better than more public encouragement and sanction for the course they are actually pursuing. They and their funds are wisely and honestly administered; and their constitution is such that any evils which may arise in them are self-corrective, or are more likely to be cured from within by the spontaneous agency of the governing bodies, than by any external authority. But these cases are rare. There are many more in which the great thing to be desired is the suppression of the endowed school altogether; or at least the combination of several trusts which are separately inefficient, so as to make one useful institution.

(1.) Amalgamation of neighbouring schools.

In illustrating the need of such combination, I shall cite examples, in towns of very different character, Selby, Thorne, Elland, Keighley, and York.

At Selby, there are four distinct bodies of trustees, each administering an insignificant fund for purposes of education.

Selby. There is the Blue Coat Charity, which clothes 24 boys and pays 24*l.* to a master for teaching them: the Brown Coat Charity, which educates and clothes 11 others for 18*l.*: a Grey Coat Charity for the clothing and education of 12 girls who are sent for that purpose to the National school; and a separate trust, called Chamberlain's, which yields 13*l.* per annum for the education of 20 poor boys in reading only. This last charity supports a separate school in which I found 15 children, of whom two only could work a sum, or write a sentence in monosyllables from dictation. The Blue and Grey Coat Charity funds are spent in fees only; and are paid to a master who keeps a school in a room over the church porch. But this school does not belong to the trustees; and although they could remove the children in whom they are severally interested, there are no means of securing unity of management or any supervision for the school itself.

Thorne. At Thorne, a small town of 3,381 inhabitants, there are two distinct educational foundations. The one, Brookes's, is possessed of handsome new premises (school house and master's house) which a recent profitable sale of land to the railway has enabled the trustees to build. In a year or two the property will be free from debt, and there will be an unincumbered annual income of 120*l.* Besides this, the school is entitled to the reversion of 1000*l.* on the death of a gentleman of advanced age. The other, Travis's, shares with the schools in two neighbouring villages, Hatfield and Wroot (Lincoln), an annual income of 240*l.*, which is a fixed rent-charge. The 80*l.* is paid to the master, and new school premises have just been built at the cost of 450*l.*, more than half of which was contributed by the family of one beneficent gentleman who is a trustee. Thus the educational provision for the town would seem exceptionally adequate. Yet, though it possesses two handsome schools within a very short distance of each other, this provision is but a small gain. For; (1) Both schools take free scholars. In Brookes's there are 10, and in Travis's 50. In neither, therefore, is the master better paid than in an ordinary National school. (2) The social position of the boys in both schools is nearly the same; there is little distinction in the quality of the attainments; both masters are certificated, and are without assistants, and although Brookes's is more pretentious and aims higher than the other, neither can take rank yet among *good* National schools. (3) Neither school provides for the education of a single girl. It is true that the new premises at Travis's contain a room which is intended to be devoted to a girls' school; but if a mistress is appointed, she will derive no benefit from the endowment, but will be obliged to get capitation fees from the sisters of those who are receiving free education in the other room. It is clear that there is great waste of power here. Two masters, two buildings, ample funds, and yet not one good school, even for boys: nothing for girls or infants, and no adequate provision for the son of a superior tradesman, who wants to go beyond ordinary English. An amalgamation of the two trusts would enable the town to boast of a very complete establishment. Reasonable fees might be charged to all the

children, a first-class certificated master might be at the head of the institution with a good assistant and probably a pupil teacher. There might also be a mistress with an assistant, and an infant department.

At Elland, in Halifax, there are three distinct trusts. Ramsden's is a so-called grammar school. Here I found 11 boys who knew absolutely nothing. The master has been here many years. There is a good schoolroom, master's house, and garden, and an endowment yielding 50*l.* per annum. Children are admissible free, but the master says that the National school takes them all away. There is also another school, Brooksbank's, for 40 free boys. It is endowed with 60*l.* per annum. There is a third trust which gives 10*l.* to a poor woman, who keeps a dame school and provides a small sum for clothing a few girls. As there are excellent National Schools in the town, these endowments are of no use to the poor: if combined they would suffice to establish an excellent middle-class school. Brooksbank's is already seeking, with some success, to acquire this character, and it contains a large class of boys paying from 10*s.* to 15*s.* per quarter: but it is hampered by the necessity of admitting 40 free boys; and as it is a Presbyterian school in which the Assembly's catechism is to be learned, there is a practical difficulty in uniting it with Ramsden's, which, though now possessing no distinctive character of any kind, was intended to be exclusively a Church school. Elland.

At Keighley there is a little endowment producing 35*l.* per annum, which was designed for an usher at the grammar school. It serves as a small stipend to pay an old man for teaching, in a miserable little room, a small number of children. Nobody pretends that this school is of the smallest use, except to furnish an annuity to a respectable man, whose claims are of long standing. If the premises, which are in the heart of the town, could be sold, and the proceeds added to the little endowment, it would make an appreciable addition to the resources of the grammar school, whether it paid an assistant or were used as an exhibition. But no application for such an amalgamation of the schools is likely to originate with the town, since they are managed by separate bodies of trustees. Keighley.

In York four little schools were endowed at the beginning of the present century by John Dodsworth. To each of four parishes, viz.: Poppleton, S. Mary Castlegate, S. Lawrence, and S. Mary, Bishophill, he bequeathed a small freehold building, consisting of a schoolroom on the ground floor, and two rooms above "as a habitation for the master or mistress teaching the same." Each school was further endowed with a capital sum of 200*l.*, the interest of which was to furnish free instruction for 20 children. A further sum of 200*l.* was invested for the equal benefit of the four schools, and for repairs, &c. The total value of the trust property, including the freehold of the buildings, is about 1,200*l.* But by distributing the interest of this small sum over four schools, and enjoining his trustees to provide gratuitous education in each, the testator has defeated his own purpose. At Poppleton, the 6*l.* 6*s.* York.

per annum is not absolutely wasted, for it serves as a subscription to the National school. But of the three little schools in York which I visited, one was a dame school of the lowest order, and two others had been closed owing to the impossibility of retaining the old teacher, or of getting a new one. All were wretched little tenements, utterly unsuited to serve any educational purpose whatever. The York Sunday School Committee, to whom the testator confided the execution of his trust, are very conscious of the uselessness of the charity on its present footing; but are unable to improve it; seeing that no one of the parishes would be willing to give up its own share of the bequest, small and useless as it is.

There are many similar cases in which it is desirable that some authority should be employed on the spot to deal with the educational resources of a town and to secure their combination and economical employment. But it is to be observed that projects for amalgamation will seldom or never come from the town itself. For example, at Thorne, Lord Houghton and Mr. J. W. Childers, who possess property in the neighbourhood, both desired to see a union effected; but the residents in the place objected, and the two bodies of trustees were not disposed to coalesce.*

(2.) Better distribution of scholarships and exhibitions.

And in like manner some means are required for the better use and distribution of the numerous scholarships and exhibitions which are attached to the endowed schools.

In the following list of the exhibitions and scholarships I have thought it better to include the entire county.

I. Exhibitions limited to particular Schools.

Giggleswick.—One of 45*l.* per annum, tenable at either university, limited to natives of Giggleswick or Clapham; two of 50*l.* to Christ's College, Cambridge.

Rishworth.—Two of 75*l.* per annum, tenable at any college in Oxford or Cambridge.

Leeds.—Four of 50*l.* per annum, tenable at Oxford, Cambridge, or Durham; one Beckett exhibition of 50*l.* per annum.

Sedbergh.—One of 45*l.*, limited to boys born in the parish; six of 66*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* each, tenable at S. John's, Cambridge.

Skipton.—One of 30*l.*, tenable at Christ's College, Cambridge.

Wakefield.—Three of 80*l.*, tenable at either university; two of 50*l.*, tenable at Clare College, Cambridge.

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* In the North and East Riding, where the need for such measures is, if possible, still greater, there will be strong local objections to the concentration or amalgamation of useless endowments. But objections of this kind would be easily met, if an opportunity was afforded of stating them before some authority which was fully conversant with the general merits of the question, and which, aided by the judgment of the more intelligent people of each neighbourhood, was empowered to propound a scheme *pro re natâ*, whenever an improvement was clearly required.

In Westmoreland, where every village and township seems to have its little hovel endowed with 15*l.* or 20*l.* a year and called a grammar school, there is yet more urgent need for concentration. In the single parish of Kirkby Stephen I found three worthless schools within easy reach of each other; but possessing revenues which, if united, would suffice to found an excellent central school. See the special report of my colleague, Mr. D. C. Richmond, on the Westmoreland schools, and also the important evidence of the Rev. J. Simpson, the rector of Kirkby Stephen.

York (*S. Peter's*).—*Three of 50*l.* per annum, tenable at either university.
Beverley.—Three of 6*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*, two of 8*l.*, one of 10*l.*, one of 6*l.*, not now used.
Hull.—One of 50*l.*, tenable at Clare Hall, Cambridge.
Pocklington.—Four of 40*l.* each, tenable at S. John's, Cambridge.
Scorton.—Two of 50*l.* each.
Bowes.—One of 60*l.*, tenable at Pembroke College, Cambridge.
Richmond.—One of 30*l.*, tenable at any college of Oxford or Cambridge; one of 8*l.*, tenable at Cambridge; one of 20*l.*, tenable at Durham.
Thornton (*Pickering*).—Three of 20*l.*, tenable at either university.

II. Exhibitions open to Competition from certain Yorkshire Schools.

Four Milner scholarships of 70*l.*, tenable at Magdalen College, Cambridge, and open to boys from Leeds, Halifax, or Haversham grammar schools.
Ten Hastings scholarships of 75*l.* to 90*l.* each, tenable at Queen's College, Oxford, and open to competitors from 12 schools, of which eight are in Yorkshire.
Three Preston exhibitions of 50*l.*, tenable at University College, Oxford, open to competitors from Wakefield, Pontefract, and Normanton.

III. Open Exhibitions with Preference to Natives of the County.

Two *Allen* scholarships of 50 guineas, tenable at Trinity Hall, Cambridge, with preference to founder's kin, next to the boys of Richmond Grammar School, afterwards to the scholars of any Yorkshire school, and afterwards to Norwich or Cambridge.
One, bequeathed by Archbishop Sterne, of the value of 20*l.*, tenable at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, with preference to natives of York or Mansfield (Notts), and in failure of candidates, to those of the diocese of York generally.
One of 30*l.*, tenable at Worcester College, Oxford, preference to natives of Richmond.†

It will be seen from this list, and by reference to the map appended to this report, that resources of this kind exist in curious disproportion to the needs of the various schools, and to the distinctions which those schools are able to win. Thus Doncaster, with 140 scholars, has no exhibitions; while Rishworth, with only 30 in its classical school, has two of 75*l.* each: Wakefield,

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* These are not provided by the endowment, but are maintained by the Dean and Chapter.

† Besides these there are some exhibitions which are still enjoyed by the families for whom they were originally designed. In 1518, one Akroyd devised an estate in Batley, the rent of which was to keep one scholar of his blood and kindred at the University "to the end of the world." A further bequest was added by a nephew in 1578. The property now yields 150*l.* per annum, and is likely to increase in value. The trustees, among whom are the heads of several distinguished Yorkshire families, are all of the kindred of the testator, except the rector of Marston, who acts *ex officio*, and from whose parish, in the event of the failure of a claimant, the scholar would be chosen. There is, however, no probability of a failure in the number of persons entitled by relationship. The scholarship is tenable for four years, and is held at this moment by a gentleman at Cambridge, who belongs to this fortunate race. The list of the holders includes one who became a Baron of the Exchequer, and several men distinguished in the Church. The Batley people have an impression that the property is, or ought to be, available for the education of the inhabitants. But the trust was never a local but a purely personal and private one; and although it happens that its benefits are not available for the poor, they are enjoyed by persons whose claim is unquestionable under the original bequest.

with 70 boys, has seven exhibitions of from 50*l.* to 80*l.* each; Pocklington, with 40 boys, has four exhibitions belonging exclusively to itself; and Sedbergh, with 13 pupils, has seven exhibitions. In several of these schools the number of exclusive privileges which they possessed has always been out of all proportion to their claims. In this way it has happened either that inferior men have obtained undue advantages and a reputation for academic success, which is not their due, or the exhibitions have been lost altogether to the school and reverted to the college. Both forms of evil have been repeatedly illustrated in this district. In some schools exhibitions are altogether in abeyance owing to the absence from them of any candidate qualified to compete for them. Thus at Hull there is an exhibition of 50*l.* per annum, tenable at Clare Hall, Cambridge. But it is open to boys who come from the Hull Grammar School only, and has long been in abeyance; for the school, though a useful institution of the "commercial" type, has for many years ceased to furnish students to the universities. The money is annually retained by the college.

Lady Betty Hastings's exhibitions.

There is in operation in this district one munificent charity which works admirably, simply because it possesses the power of self-adjustment. In 1739 Lady Elizabeth Hastings, daughter of the Earl of Huntingdon, bequeathed to the provost and scholars of Queen's College, Oxford, some valuable estates for the perpetual maintenance of five poor scholars at that college, each of whom was to receive 28*l.* per annum for five years. The codicil to her will recites the names of 12 schools, each of which is to be entitled to send a candidate once in five years, viz., eight in Yorkshire, —Leeds, Wakefield, Bradford, Beverley, Skipton, Sedbergh, Ripon and Sherburn; two in Westmoreland—Appleby and Haversham; and two in Cumberland—S. Bees and Penrith. The provisions of the will, which describe the nature of the competition whereby the scholars shall be chosen, are so curious that I transcribe them here:—

"And I make it my earnest request that the rectors of Berwick, Spofforth, "and Bolton Percy, and the vicars of Leeds, Ledsham, Thorp Arch, and "Collingham, in the county of York, will, in the year wherein the exhibitions "shall commence (if the year be not too far advanced for giving notice, as is "hereinafter directed) and so likewise at the expiration of every five years, for "ever after, meet together at the best inn in Abberford, or Abberforth, in the "same county, viz., on Thursday in Whitsún week, before 8 of the clock in "the morning.

"Also, all the boys to meet at the said best inn in Abberforth the night pre- "ceding the day of nomination in order to be ready to begin their exercises the "next morning.

"And I entreat the rectors and vicars aforenamed will be there half an hour "after seven, that they may choose the boys' morning exercise and put them "upon beginning the same by eight of the clock.

"And my will is that their exercise be a part of an oration in Tully, not "exceeding eight or ten lines, to be translated into English; and part of an "oration in Demosthenes, about the same number of lines, to be translated "into Latin: and two or three verses of the Latin Testament, to be translated "into Greek; and four books of each sort being provided immediately put "them upon beginning the translations; four of the boys being employed in

" one kind of translation, four in a second, and four in a third; and then " changing the books till they have gone through the three several translations.

" And whilst the boys are making their morning exercise, the said rectors " and vicars, or the greater number of them, shall proceed to choose the after- " noon exercise (which shall be upon two subjects); one of practical divinity, " out of the Church Catechism, upon which each boy shall give his thoughts " in Latin in not fewer than eight lines nor more than twelve; the other subject, " some distinguished sentence of a classic author, upon which each boy shall " write two distichs of verses; all of which translations and compositions are to " be written out fair on one sheet of paper, and signed by the name of each boy " they belong to, and then showed to every nominating rector and vicar, who " are desired impartially to weigh and consider and return ten of the best of " the said exercises (each of which ten to be signed by the greater number of " the Rectors and Vicars present) to the Provost and Fellows of Queen's " College, in the University of Oxford.

" And when the said Provost and Fellows have received the same they are " hereby required to meet together, as soon after as conveniently may be, to " examine into them carefully and impartially, and choose out of them eight of " the best performances, which appear the best; which done, the names sub- " scribed to those eight shall be fairly written, each in a distinct paper, and the " papers rolled up and put into an urn or vase by the Provost, or, in his " absence, by the Vice-Provost, or senior Fellow, and, after having been shaken " well together in the urn shall be drawn out of the urn by some person whom " he or they shall appoint; and those five whose names are first drawn shall, " to all intents and purposes, be held duly elected and entitled to the whole " profits, each of his exhibition for the space of five years, as before provided, " from Pentecost then next preceding the election.

" And though this method of choosing by lot may be called by some super- " stition or enthusiasm, yet as the advice was given by an orthodox and pious " prelate of the Church of England as leaving something to Providence, and as " it will be a means to save the scholars the trouble and expense of a journey " to Oxford under too great an uncertainty of being elected, I will that this " method of balloting be for ever observed."

A further clause, evincing on the part of the benevolent testatrix* a forethought in advance of her age, provides that if one or more of the 12 schools shall so far come to decay, as to have no scholars returned to take their lot by balloting for four successive elections, it shall be the duty of the Provost to substitute some other school in the same county. Accordingly changes have been made from time to time. Beverley, Ripon, Sherburn, and Skipton have been replaced by Hipperholme, Giggleswick, Pontefract, and York. Several of the schools now on the list will shortly forfeit their claim, and there can be little doubt that one or two others which have once lost it will speedily regain their place in the list. New ordinances were framed by the Oxford University Commissioners in 1860, increasing the number of Hastings exhibitions, and fixing the annual value of each, at a minimum of 75*l.*, and a maximum of 90*l.*, tenable for five years; the property having meanwhile so increased in value, that instead of 140*l.* it now yields 1,600*l.* per annum. The duty of examining is transferred from the local clergy to the Provost and Fellows of Queen's College. Two examinations are now held at Oxford every year, and a sum of 5*l.* is given to each of the four best of the unsuccessful candidates in part payment of his expenses. On failing to send a candidate

* In the *Tatler*, No. 42, this lady's portrait is delicately sketched under the name of the divine Aspasia.

for 20 successive elections,* the claim of any school is *ipso facto* invalidated. The custom of determining the final choice by lot has been abandoned; but in all other respects the present scheme is in close harmony with the expressed intentions of the foundress. Since the promulgation of the scheme in 1860 there have been eleven vacancies, of which York has filled three, Appleby two, Sedbergh two, and Leeds, Haversham, Wakefield, and S. Bees, one each. There are now nine young men at the university enjoying the advantages of this bequest.

Now the one circumstance to which the great usefulness and vitality of this trust are owing, is that the scheme is elastic, and that after a reasonable time when any one school ceases to be morally entitled to the privilege, it forfeits its legal claim. This is precisely the arrangement which is urgently needed in regard to all other exhibitions possessed by the schools in this district. A reference to the detailed reports will show how the scholarship of some schools is kept down by the fact that they are too rich in exhibitions, while that of others is injured because they are too poor. It is greatly to be desired that some authority possessing at once the needful local knowledge, and the knowledge of general education which is not less essential, should be empowered to deal with such cases equitably, and to cause the revenues now available for sending boys to the universities to be so distributed as to give the maximum of advantage to the educational life of the district, for whose benefit they were designed.

Exhibitions might be made available in great schools as well as in the universities.

And if such an authority existed, its inquiries would, I believe, soon reveal the fact that this advantage might be better attained by making some of the exhibitions tenable at superior schools rather than at the universities. When one looks with fresh eyes at the educational needs of modern life it is impossible to avoid regret that all the exhibitions of this kind are at present dedicated to one end only—the maintenance of students at the universities. Some of them, which are of fixed annual value, are too small for their original purpose, and might yet serve many more useful if humbler purposes instead. One gentleman who has had large experience of Oxford life writes to me on this point:—

> " I am far from wishing local inducements and helps towards a university " education to be in any way diminished. But I would substitute for some of " the exhibitions and scholarships in the Universities exhibitions at schools of " a higher order, reserving a preference to the localities to which they are " attached. If it be said that these exhibitions will carry men to the threshold " of the University and no farther, that is by no means the case. Many exhi- " bitions are held for five, seven, or ten years. Why should not a portion of " that time be spent at school? In other cases, some part of the money might " be reserved for college. But, in fact, the great increase of scholarships in " the Universities (which may be obtained without any great merit) will more " than fill up the void. Indeed, I will venture to say that hardly anyone, " whom it is worth while to *encourage* to go to college, can fail of obtaining a " scholarship."

* The visitor has recently decided that the proper interpretation of this provision is " 20 years." Hence none of the schools which now enjoy the privilege will forfeit it before 1878. It is to be regretted that by this decision the process of eliminating the worst schools from the list and replacing them by others will be somewhat tardier than the language of the statutes had led me to expect.

A provision, whereby the most promising boys of a village could be selected and sent gratuitously to Leeds or York, would meet the wants of many of the smaller grammar schools in Yorkshire. It is, in fact, the only available plan for utilizing a local exhibition without alienating it from the school to which it belongs. Boys cannot go *per saltum* from such a school to the University. Their only chance of obtaining higher education is through a higher school. And if it were once admitted that the object of the exhibition was not confined to the Universities, but was to encourage the legitimate aspirations of those who wished in any way to obtain a more liberal education, other applications of the principle would soon become manifest. Thus, while some exhibitions might be tenable at a higher school, others might be extended to the period during which a clever boy was studying in London with a view to the profession of medicine or of law. And if the cheap boarding schools for farmers' sons, which are so much needed, were once established, in lieu of some of the effete grammar schools, it would not be an unfitting use for such an exhibition to send a promising boy from one of them to the Royal Agricultural College or to some similar institution.

Or at schools of law or medicine.

A still more important and legitimate application of such funds would be to make them available for the supply of a race of better qualified teachers. Probably the best public schoolmasters are those who have been educated in public schools. But the grammar school system has done nothing to facilitate their choice of the schoolmaster's calling, or to help them when they had chosen it. Yet this is a function which, with the help of a little organisation, the schools might well discharge. If the promising boy of 15, who developes any aptitude to teach, were allowed to pursue his own studies without further payment, on condition of his taking a small share under supervision, of the elementary instruction;—if success at this stage of his career could be further rewarded by his transference to a superior school where he would still give occasional lessons;—if pains were taken each year to test his improvement in teaching power, as well as in knowledge;—and if, when his school career was closed, he were enabled to go to the University, to a superior training college, or as assistant to another school; according as he had chosen the higher, the middle, or the lower walk of his profession, a race would in time be produced, of men who had been specially designed for the schoolmaster's vocation from boyhood, and who were specially qualified for it. The pupil-teacher system, which in another sphere has been already tried with such excellent effect, has no necessary or exclusive fitness for poor children, and for elementary schools. It would be found available in all its essential features for the grammar schools. It is an economical and yet an efficient agency as far as the work of teaching is concerned; while it furnishes a professional apprenticeship of great value to the future schoolmaster. It would not be difficult to frame a curriculum of study properly graduated and adapted to the several years in the school life of a boy who is designed to be a teacher. Large liberty might easily be left, so that the characteristic differences of various schools might

Or in training colleges.

The pupil-teacher system not unsuited for partial adoption in grammar schools.

remain intact. Means might be devised for the introduction of the student for a short time to one or two good schools, which would serve as models; and the encouragement and help which were offered at every step of his course, would go far to beget in him, as well as in the mind of the public, a higher estimate of the teacher's vocation.

These considerations have often been brought before me in the course of my recent inquiries, and I have made them the subject of frequent conversation with the principal masters and trustees of schools. And I find a very general wish that more of the experience which has been accumulated in elementary schools could be utilized for the improvement of those of a higher kind. There is great waste of educational resources in the grammar schools, partly through their having inherited wealth, but mainly because each school is completely isolated, and is carried on without reference to any other schools, and in ignorance of the methods and experiments which have been tried in them with success. If the system of apprenticing and training teachers is good for one department of educational work, there can be little doubt that it would have a healthy influence on other departments when once fairly tried.

(3.) Annual inspection and examination.

But the one suggestion which finds most favour among governing bodies, is that of an inspection by some competent authority of every grammar school in the country. An annual examination followed by the publication of a detailed report on the state of every department of the school work is more likely than any other expedient to preserve the vitality of a school. All the best schools have already sought this for themselves. Leeds, Wakefield, York, Doncaster, Hipperholme, and Ripon, submit themselves voluntarily to an examination, generally held by distinguished men from the universities, and receive from them independent reports which are presented to the governing bodies and generally published. The most beneficial results have followed from this plan; although it is at present adopted by those schools which are least in need of this kind of stimulus. But to examinations as at present conducted, I have heard several objections, to which it seems well to draw attention here.

Objections to the existing practice of occasional and voluntary examination.

(1.) They are often very expensive. The Scheme of the Cambridge Syndicate which allows an examiner to visit a large school, spend a week in it, and make a report *nominatim* on the merits and standing of every scholar, leaves nothing to be desired for its fairness and thoroughness; but the expense is very serious, and none but rich schools can afford to pay it.* Practically, only two grammar schools in this district have availed themselves of the arrangement this year.

(2.) They are sometimes very incomplete. They extend only to the upper forms, and are limited to those subjects for which prizes are awarded and university distinctions are to be obtained. A Fellow

* Besides the university fee of 10*l.*, and the travelling expenses of the examiner, he receives 3*l.* per day, as his fee during the continuance of the examination after the second day.

of a College invited by the governing body to examine a school is apt to confine his attention to the upper forms and to classics and mathematics. He leaves the examination of the younger classes to the masters. He does not concern himself with the methods of instruction, with the organisation of the school, with its order, or the neatness and intelligence with which its work is habitually done.

(3). The examiner is often a personal friend of the master, and is nominated, with or with out the consent of the trustees, chiefly on that account. I cannot quote any cases in which this fact has vitiated the examination or seriously affected the trustworthiness of the Report. But I could quote several in which it has gone far to destroy the public confidence, and I need not point out that the most important purposes of an examination are not secured unless the trustees have the highest guarantee for the impartiality and thoroughness with which it is conducted.*

(4.) And it sometimes happens that persons are invited to officiate as examiners who do not possess the requisite educational experience. The art of examining a school is not easily acquired. It demands skill, tact, experience, sympathy with learners, and a pretty accurate acquaintance with the sort of knowledge which can be fairly expected from boys at each of the early stages of their intellectual career. And it does not follow that because a gentleman is highly distinguished as a scholar or is an old college friend of the head master, that he possesses these qualifications. He may be able to set a paper to be answered in writing, and he may follow the precedent of the university examinations with tolerable care, and yet the most important features of the school work will escape him after all.†

All these are forms of objection which I have heard urged by trustees and parents against the examinations which are at present conducted in the grammar schools. They would be removed if the examination were a more public act; if it were performed on well defined and well understood principles; if it extended to the whole school as well as to the upper boys; if it took cognizance of methods as well as results; and if it were placed in the hands of highly qualified and responsible men accustomed to the work of comparing one school with another.

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* The following extract from a clergyman's letter to me will also illustrate this point :—

"It seems to me that in numbers of cases, owners or masters of virtual middle-class schools depend upon the ignorance of the parents. I am afraid too, that in the great majority of cases the periodical examinations of such and such schools, by such and such (*ex officio* or selected) examiners is not much better than a sham, but a useful one to the authorities. I know I had the examination of the school alleged as a satisfactory reply to my remonstrance about the backwardness of my two lads. The evident *argumentum* of the letter was,—the examiners say the school is well taught and the boys making good progress, who are you to dispute it? Two or three amiable gentlemen, with a natural desire to make things pleasant, and aided by the officials with an equally natural and at least equally sincere desire to make things pleasant, and with no ultimate responsibility, are not, perhaps, the best tribunal possible, for deciding on the actual merits or demerits of any school, its system, and its results."

† At Bradford an examiner is appointed who sends the papers to be worked in the school in his absence, and whose report is sent to the head-master, not to the trustees. My visit was paid to the school some months after the examination, and the trustees had never seen the report.

The Oxford and Cambridge local examinations little used by grammar schools.

It must be remembered that the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations have at present produced but little effect on the endowed schools. Their influence has been chiefly confined to the better class of private and proprietary schools. I shall have to show hereafter how partial that influence is, and how very superficial a test of the goodness of the school is furnished by the occasional success of one or two picked and prepared pupils from the upper classes. The masters of the greater grammar schools do not encourage their pupils to avail themselves of the local examinations. Even the boys of the civil or commercial departments of these schools are rarely presented. And the standard of instruction in the smaller grammar schools is, as a rule, so much below that of the junior examination either at Oxford or Cambridge that I cannot be surprised at the general unwillingness of the masters to use them. The extent to which the local examinations touch the endowed schools of this district may be estimated from the fact that within the years 1864–5 Cambridge held an examination at Leeds and Sheffield, and Oxford at Leeds, and that only four of the grammar schools in the district sent candidates, viz., Wakefield two senior, Halifax one senior, Pontefract one junior, and Sheffield two junior. Thus the 64 endowed schools of this district furnished in all only six successful candidates, and the number was not materially increased in the following year.

With scarcely an exception, the trustees of schools in all parts of the district assure me that they would welcome an authoritative annual examination as a great boon to the schools and a means of guidance to themselves. I have, in meeting these bodies almost invariably put the question: "How would you like an annual report placing on record the exact state of the school, its numbers, and the way in which its work compares with that of others in similar positions?" The answer has always been that they would be glad of it, that it would strengthen their hands and stimulate the schools. In not a few cases great disappointment was expressed that the Commission was not a permanent body, and that my examination was not likely to be repeated next year.

Objections to a system of authoritative annual inspection.

On the other hand, some of the more thoughtful of the school managers have very earnestly deprecated the establishment of a uniform system of testing the work of schools, and have urged that it would diminish the independence of masters, deaden their energies, and render their work mechanical. Thus Mr. W. Aldam, the late M.P. for Leeds, one of the Hemsworth trustees, a gentleman whose own academic distinctions entitle his opinion to special weight, says:

"I think it very undesirable to have uniformity, either in the subjects taught "or in the methods of teaching. Different modes of training cultivate different "capacities, and the varied wants of society are more likely to be supplied by "diversified than by uniform education."

Mr. Walter Morrison, M.P., who is a trustee of Giggleswick school, says:—

"External interference should content itself with putting the machine into "perfect working order. Each teacher has his own special taste, and it is "much better for a man to teach that on which he is an enthusiast, even if it "be not the best mental training possible, than to teach badly the recognized "course of some cut and dried Government system."

Cautions like these ought not to be disregarded. Nothing could be more fatal to true educational progress than any public measure designed to make all schools conform to one type. We gain more in the long run from the fancies and even the hobbies of able men than from the routine and propriety of dull men. The teaching of a very zealous man is often one-sided and deficient; but this is a small evil, and is largely corrected by the force and reality of his lessons, and by the stimulus they give to the whole intellectual life of the scholar. To discourage the specialities of the best teachers would be to do great mischief. But, on the whole, the men whose enthusiasm would be checked and whose usefulness would be diminished by the application of a good test, are very rare. Public measures are wanted for average men, and it cannot be doubted that for them the stimulus of a searching examination is most healthful.*

Effect of inspection on the elementary schools.

I may be permitted to refer here to my own experience as an inspector of elementary schools. Under the Revised Code the examinations have an undoubted tendency to enforce a uniform standard on the schools. Perhaps it is not too much to say that where five schools rise to meet this requirement, a sixth sinks down to it, and does less work than it would otherwise do. That which is officially prescribed as the *minimum* is often interpreted by the schoolmaster as the *maximum*. Whatever is not enforced is presumed to be intentionally discouraged: so while I cannot doubt that the average level of instruction in the elementary schools has been greatly raised by the Revised Code it is easy to see that in a few exceptional cases a good school has suffered by it; and that a sort of professional zeal which used to lead masters to pride themselves on the special proficiency of their scholars in some one favourite subject has been somewhat discouraged.

Analogous advantages would be derived by grammar schools.

The possibility of similar influences, both for good and evil, should be well considered before any general system of school examinations is adopted. But it is worth while to remember that the inspection under the Revised Code is a condition on which a sum of public money is distributed, and is meant to determine whether a specific kind of work, for which payment is guaranteed by Parliament, has been actually done. But if grammar schools were placed under annual inspection there would be no grant to administer; the examiners would have no conditions to impose and no theories to promote. Their business would simply be to inquire what the school professed to teach, and to ascertain how far the profession corresponded to the reality. In thus testing whatever work was brought to them, without determining *à priori* what that work should be, or how it was to be done, it is difficult to see how any hurtful uniformity would be enforced, or any independence of choice interfered with. The system of inspection for primary

* At present it is the rarest thing for an endowed school to receive a visit of any kind. In one town the Mayor and Corporation met me in a dingy and unpleasant school of which they are the official trustees. The master afterwards told me that he had been in his post 20 years, and that until the day of my visit no member of the Corporation had once been within its walls.

schools has had on the whole a wonderful influence for good, notwithstanding the danger to which I have adverted. It cannot be doubted that if extended to endowed schools generally it would be still more beneficial, since the same danger would not exist.

And if I may venture once more to fall back on my own past experience, I will say that nothing pleases an inspector so much as to recognize new and original forms of good work. Monotony is not less wearisome to him than to other men. It is the dead level of *mediocre*, pedantic, soulless work in schools which disheartens him most: and the one thing which lights up his own duty and gives it its highest interest is to see a schoolmaster put heart and enthusiasm into his teaching. So far from discouraging methods which depart from the received type, he is, in just the proportion in which his own ideal is high, likely to overvalue them. He, at least, is not the man whose tastes or interests would be consulted by degrading the schoolmaster's work from a noble profession into a mechanical trade.

(4.) Better local distribution of educational advantages.

All schemes, however, for the utilization and improvement of existing endowments, presuppose that the educational wants of a large district should be looked on as a whole, and that its resources should be properly adapted to them. At present schools are scattered about the country in a haphazard way, and the distribution of endowments bears no relation whatever to the distribution of the population. Thus it will be seen by reference to the map of Yorkshire, prefixed to this report, that the richest endowments are often to be found in small and remote places, like Pocklington, Hemsworth, Giggleswick, and Sedbergh; while Huddersfield and Dewsbury possess no endowment, and Sheffield, Rotherham, and other important centres of industry are very scantily furnished with funds for educational purposes. It may not be desirable to equalize or rearrange all these trusts. There is no harm in preserving rich and privileged spots, if they are publicly known and recognized as the great educational centres of the district, and if access to them is made easy by some comprehensive arrangement. Without materially disturbing the present local distribution of educational charities, it will be found that they furnish for this district an apparatus of some completeness and of great value, which might if properly organised meet many of the most pressing wants of Yorkshire. We have in that portion of the county assigned to me as a specimen district, a total area of 1,709,307 acres, and a population of 1,548,229 persons. We have also 64 endowed foundations, whose united annual revenues amount to 18,815*l.* 12*s.* 10*d.* If it were permissible to look at this amount of educational apparatus, with reference to the necessities of the whole district, it would not be difficult to set before us the ideal of three distinct classes of schools, and to assign to each its own character as a *primary*, a *secondary*, or a *higher school.**

* It seems better to use some nomenclature of this kind which is too vague to commit us to a theory of education, and yet clear enough for practical purposes. The name grammar or classical school conveys no false impression among educated men.

Three classes of schools.

By *Primary education* may be understood the best training possible for the pupil who will probably leave school at 12 or 13. It corresponds with the education now given in the best of the National and British schools. It includes reading, writing, and arithmetic, the elements of geography and history, and enough of exercise in language to enable a pupil to read an English book with intelligence. A primary school is generally, but not necessarily, a school for the poor. There are many persons above the rank of labourer who are fully prepared to pay the cost of such education if it were brought within their reach. A school of this kind, if it contain not less than 80 scholars, may be fully equipped and maintained in efficiency for the sum of 30*s.* per annum or 9*d.* per week per head.*

Secondary education may be supposed to terminate at about the age of 15. It may include all primary instruction; though in the prospect of a longer stay at school, that instruction may from the first assume a more philosophic character: Latin may be begun early; its grammar may be taught in connexion with English, and treated rather as a disciplinal exercise than as a means of introducing the student to Roman literature. Verse-making and Greek need not be attempted, but one modern language may safely be included. Arithmetic may be taught as a branch of mathematics and in connexion with the elements of algebra and geometry. Enough of the elements of some one or two branches of science may be taught, to familiarize the scholar with some great primary laws of nature, and with the methods by which scientific truth is to be obtained. The cost of such education will be greater than in a primary school, because men of higher qualificatious will be needed, and because the staff of teachers will be greater in proportion to the numbers. Moreover the class of persons who can afford to dispense with the services of their sons till 15 or 16, can generally afford to pay higher fees. From 4*l.* 4*s.* to 8*l.* 8*s.* per annum per head, will generally suffice for this purpose.

By *Higher education*, may be understood that which is continued to the age of 17 or 18, and which is designed to prepare a boy for

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It is accepted as a figure of speech, by which a part, and that the characteristic and guiding feature of the education, is taken for the whole. But among half-educated teachers and pretentious parents, the current use of the phrase does great mischief. It is to them a term of exclusion, an excuse for a narrow and pedantic teaching of the Latin grammar, and for the omission of all other useful training. And the word "commercial," is a still more mischievous synonym for a secondary school. For, in fact, such schools do little or nothing by way of special preparation for commerce, and if they did they would be worse even than they are. Few accidents have done more to perpetuate among the middle classes a low and mean ideal of the purpose of education than the current use of the word "commercial" to imply non-classical; as if mental discipline and preparation for practical business were two distinct and irreconcileable things. Compare with our clumsy nomenclature of classical, commercial, academy, National, British and foreign schools; the Gymnasien, Realschulen, and Volkschulen of North Germany, or the Lycées, Colléges Communales, and Écoles Primaires of France; and it will be seen at once how much better it is to have terminology which implies no theory of education, and which will adapt itself with equal propriety to the varying necessities of another generation.

* See the Report of the Commission on Popular Education, p. 67. "The full cost "of educating a scholar in Church of England schools under inspection is 1*l.* 8*s.* 0¼*d.*, "exclusive of charges for rent and the cost of inspection and central administration."

college. It is needless to particularise the course which should be pursued; since the universities must always in the last resort determine what the highest ideal of education in a country is. The fees to be paid should be sufficient to attract to the masterships men of the highest power and academic distinction.

This classification proceeds on the principle that when once the average duration of the pupil's school life is ascertained, it is generally found to correspond with the parent's ability to pay. At all events it alone determines the character of the education the scholars should receive. No account is taken of the distinctions of rank, nor of the future destination of boys. No social distinctions which are worth maintaining will be obliterated if each class receives the highest cultivation which the time at its disposal will permit. If the exigencies of the labour market call some children into the factory or the fields at 10, others into shops at 14, while they allow others to dedicate a large part of their life to thought and study, that one circumstance alone will keep the several classes distinct; though, in all schools alike, the highest attainable ideal of education has been aimed at.

Now the present unsatisfactory condition of many of the endowed schools is owing to the fact that their character is not clearly defined and that their governing bodies have not set before themselves the question, "To what class does this school belong, and what is the work which it is specially fitted to do?" I have shewn that many of the schools profess a character to which they are not entitled, and keep up an organisation adapted for one kind of teaching long after it has become clear that the only demand is for teaching of another order. If a school is filled with labourers' children, or with boys who go into shops at 14, it is futile to call it a grammar school; and to place a university man at the head of it. The wisest course seems to be to accept the position and to make the school a good one of its kind.

I have ventured on the following tentative classification of the schools. It is, of course, founded on a consideration rather of what is possible and desirable, than of their actual present condition.

High schools. *High Schools.*—Of these there are three, to which I have already referred:—Doncaster, Leeds, and S. Peter's, York. There are three others which are so situated as to form eligible centres:—Ripon, Sheffield, Giggleswick *or* Sedbergh.*

* It is manifest that in the altered condition of modern society Giggleswick *and* Sedbergh cannot both be expected to become great schools, though each possesses a large income and a historic character; and either might, in good hands, be lifted up from its present state. Giggleswick is the richer; it is more central; and it is in a far more hopeful condition, whether we consider the state of its buildings, its staff of teachers, or the zeal and intelligence of its governing body. It is not too much to hope that it may one day become for the North of England what Rugby is to the Midland districts. As to Sedbergh, I despair of putting it into any class at all. In its present state it simply cumbers the ground.

The vast population in the neighbourhood of Sheffield forms the only important community in this district which seems to need a great school to provide for the highest education. But neither the Sheffield Grammar School nor that at Rotherham possesses wealth or standing to qualify itself for this work. Both belong at present to the Secondary class. Either would require powerful aid to raise it to the character of a High School.

These six high schools would amply suffice to meet the demands of this district. Since the sons of the richer squires and manufacturers are sent out of the county for instruction, I doubt whether even these six can all hope to succeed without some such enlargement of their scope as has already been recommended (ante p. 171). But it is certain that an adequate provision would be made for the highest education of the district, if these six schools accepted that as their main business.

Secondary schools.

Secondary Schools.—The list of these include the names of several which are trying to maintain a classical character; and any one of which under energetic management might easily entitle itself to the place of a high school. But although Wakefield, Halifax, Pontefract, and Bradford, possess scholarships, and occasionally send boys to the universities, the character of the surrounding population and their nearness to Leeds renders it very unlikely that they will ever become extensively useful as pure grammar schools; and any attempt to retain that nominal character will only perpetuate their present state of feebleness, and deprive them of the power to render the greatest service to the important districts of which they are the centres. On the other hand many of the schools included in this list are now elementary schools of a very low type. But in every case in which the National school exists side by side with an Endowed school, I have assumed that the latter ought to give a higher education, and to adapt itself to the wants of a higher class. The list of such schools is as follows:

Almondbury	Haworth	Rastrick	Thorne (Brookes's)
Batley	Hemsworth	Rotherham	Wakefield
Bentham	Hipperholme	Silkstone	Wortley
Bingley	Keighley	Skipton	York, Archbishop Holgate's
Bradford	Knaresborough	Slaidburn	„ S. Crux
Elland	Penistone	Tadcaster	
Halifax	Pontefract		

Under any arrangement, schools varying so much as these as to their wealth and the employment of the surrounding population, will differ materially in character. Between a secondary school of the highest or "semi-classical" class, and a humble establishment just above the rank of a primary school, there are many gradations. By grouping all these into one class as secondary schools, it is only intended to indicate that no one of them ought to be exclusively a training school for the university, and that they are all so circumstanced as to be able to give special aid to the children above the rank of the artisan.

Among these are several rich foundations, which are so useless in their present condition that they would be available for any purpose of general utility which might be deemed important. There can be no doubt that one great want of this district is that of good and cheap boarding schools for the lower middle class, at convenient centres. Skipton is the capital of the Craven district; is accessible to the farmers' sons of the north-west of the county, is in a healthy and beautiful neighbourhood, is large enough to furnish all needful conveniences, and yet not large enough to

offer temptations to boys.* It would be difficult to find a better spot for the establishment of a model boarding school on a large and economical scale. The appropriation of the entire revenue of the present worthless grammar school to such a purpose would injure no one, and would confer a great boon on the whole district.

A similar experiment might be tried in the southern division of the West Riding, *e.g.*, at Hemsworth. This is a small village near Pontefract, with a richly endowed hospital, under the same trust as the grammar school. The funds at the disposal of the trustees for educational purposes are increasing, and are wholly out of proportion to the requirements of the village. They propose to maintain two schools, one on the footing of a National school for elementary instruction; and the other an upper department or grammar school. On this they contemplate expending 5,000*l.*, with a view to the admission of 20 boarders, who are to be educated with the upper classes of residents. But it is very unlikely that the village will ever produce more than one or two pupils requiring higher instruction; and since the school possesses no exhibitions and no historical character likely to attract a high class of pupils from a distance, it will probably never take rank as a grammar school. Yet it is in a most eligible position for the formation of a good secondary boarding school on a large scale.

It will be evident from the detailed report on several others of these schools, that their entire suppression, or the alienation of their revenues for the establishment of new institutions of a totally different character would destroy nothing which was valuable, and would be fully justified by the altered circumstances and requirements of our age.†

Primary schools.

Primary Schools.—In this list I include all those endowed schools which stand alone and furnish the only means of education in a parish or village. At present they prevent the establishment of good elementary schools. They are generally in places where there is no demand for secondary instruction. Their only hope of usefulness lies in the acceptance of their position as primary schools, and in arrangements which will enable them to do that work well. They are:—

Adlingfleet	Heptonstall	Linton	Snaith
Arncliffe	Hampsthwaite	Malham	Sherburn
Burnsall	Hatfield	Normanton	Thorne (Travis's)
Cawthorne	Horton	Royston	Thornton
Drighlington	Keighley (Hare Hill)	Rawden	Wigglesworth
Darfield	Kirk Sandall	Rossington	Wragby
Fishlake	Kirby-in-Malhamdale		

But, at present, many of these schools, though free, derive a smaller income from the endowment than is a fair substitute for

* See the evidence of the Rev. H. G. Robinson, incumbent of Bolton Abbey.

† Cases of this kind are still more striking in the North and East Ridings. Thus, Malton, Bridlington, Beverley, and Stokesley would be excellent centres for good secondary schools for the agricultural parts of Yorkshire. In the neighbourhood of each of these spots there are endowments at present utterly wasted, which, if combined would not only suffice to establish useful institutions on a liberal scale, but also to furnish them with exhibitions. Compare the statement on the left of the map, showing the amount of the endowments, with the table on the right, showing the populations of the several towns.

the fees, which would otherwise be paid, and for the Government grant.* They are, therefore, poorer than if they were unendowed.

It must be remembered that almost every good sized village which does not possess an endowment is now furnished with a National school under inspection. The resources of such a school consist of three parts; often nearly equal in amount—the subscriptions of the richer inhabitants; the fees paid by parents; and the Government grant. Now, it is evident that if another village has an endowment it can afford to dispense with one or perhaps all of these; and the income serves to relieve from a charge either the people of the place, or the general taxation of the country. If this were all, there would be no strong reason to desire a change. But, in fact, there is an immense practical difference between schools in the two places. The unendowed school always has better furniture, better teaching, and more watchful supervision. The conditions under which it derives its income are such as to ensure its vitality. The subscriptions make it an object of care and interest to the richer people, the weekly fees challenge the sympathy of parents, and the Government grant ensures annual inspection, proper teaching appliances, and a qualified master. The endowed school lacks some or all of these advantages, and the richer it is, the more completely destitute it is apt to be of all which give life and usefulness to it as a place of instruction.

The means of keeping each class of schools efficient.

Now, to make this third class of endowed schools efficient, it is necessary to give them the same advantages as are now enjoyed by good National schools. As vacancies occur, they might be placed under the care of certificated teachers, girls might be admitted, proper fees charged, a portion of the income reserved to maintain the fabric and fittings, and the whole subjected to annual inspection and report, of the same kind as are now enforced on schools receiving the Parliamentary grant. If the income is insufficient, it should be supplemented by the public grant, and if any income is possessed, beyond what is needed to maintain the school in efficiency; it might be fitly expended at certain intervals, not in remitting fees, but in paying to send the best pupil to the nearest secondary or high school.

An endowed primary school in a rural district, so far from being inferior to an ordinary national school, ought to be exceptionally good. A right use of its endowment might easily render it capable of doing special service to a large class for whom little provision exists now—the children of the smaller tenant farmers, who are

* In a letter from the secretary of the Education Department to the Charity Commissioners August 12th 1865, this point is clearly stated.

"My Lords desire particularly to bring under the consideration of the Charity "Commissioners those many cases where the amount of the endowment is plainly "inadequate to pay for the whole of the children's education which, in a good "elementary day school, does not average less than 30*s.* per annum, and is put down "at that amount by the Royal Commissioners on Popular Education in their report, "p. 345. My Lords desire me to point out that the founder who, under such circumstances, stipulates for gratuitous education, is often declaring a perpetual trust for "the due execution whereof he has not provided means, and that his intention, if "absolutely respected, is allowed to prevail beyond the measure of his own liberality, "as well as of his own life. A limitation upon the number of free scholars has often "the same effect as the power to exact fees from all."

unable to bear the cost of a boarding school. Such persons, when they have a good elementary school within their reach, are not unwilling to let their sons associate with poorer children up to the age of 12 or 13. But by that time a boy has gone through the ordinary course of instruction, and has probably passed through the six standards. The parents not unnaturally suppose that he has learned all that the school can teach him, and since they are willing to give him one or two years more of school life, they remove him to another school. A cheap boarding school is generally selected for this purpose, and in it the pupil is expected to "finish." Yet he is at least as likely to lose ground as to make any further improvement. The master of such a school is often singularly unfitted to build wisely on such a foundation, or even to appreciate at its real value the work which he is called on to supplement. His methods are different, and his aims are not higher. The farmer or village tradesman who has been tempted to believe that a private school was more respectable than another, and that his son would complete his education advantageously in such a school, has often bitter reason for disappointment. It is clear that the wisest course would be in such cases to finish the education in a higher class of the same school in which it had been begun. But higher departments of this kind rarely exist, and none of the ordinary arrangements of a rural national school encourage the formation of them. There can be no doubt that this difficulty might be partially removed by some such measure as this:—

(*a.*) About one in four of the village schools under inspection might be selected as convenient centres, and allowed, with the help of an endowment or otherwise, to establish an upper department.

(*b.*) The children of farmers and small tradesmen might be encouraged to come to these schools on payment of 8*d.* or 1*s.* per week, according to age, and might be examined by the inspector in the same way as if a grant were payable on their behalf.

(*c.*) It might be clearly understood that such children were not the recipients of any charitable aid when they obtained education on these terms; and two or at least one of the parents representing this upper class might be always placed upon the managing committee.

(*d.*) A seventh standard, extending to grammar and the higher arithmetic, and an eighth, including geography and history, the elements of algebra or Euclid, and an alternative of English composition or the Latin grammar, might be devised for older pupils. No grant would be claimable for any pupil passed in this highest standard, but all the pupils would be examined by the inspector.

(*e.*) The present rule by which the amount of the endowment is deducted from the parliamentary grant might be relaxed in all these cases: *e.g.*, if any school, without ceasing to do its elementary work well, also developed an upper class or a separate department, its managers should be permitted to appropriate from the trust fund a certain sum—say 1*l.* per head—to the teacher, for every one of those scholars for whom the grant could not be claimed.

Thus the endowment, instead of being thrown into the general funds, would become specially available for the education of those who are now shut out from the full benefit of elementary schools, but for whose wants those schools, with a little modification and increased resources, might well provide.

In some rural districts the endowment would suffice for a separate establishment; but in these cases a good certificated master is best fitted to complete the work which is begun in the national school. Many of the country clergy express a strong wish for some arrangement of this kind. The experiments made by the late Dean of Hereford, when Vicar of King's Somborne showed how well calculated a superior or fully developed national school was for the wants of the farmers. I can find little or no evidence of such experiments in this district, since it is often sufficiently difficult to maintain the elementary school by itself. But the clergy and the present managers of national and British schools, especially of those which possess small endowments, would thankfully welcome any arrangement which encouraged them to admit scholars of a higher rank. They feel, however, that the initiative must come from some authority, and that a modification of the present regulations of the Council is indispensable. Thus the Rev. C. St. John Mildmay, the rector of Long Marston, who has given much thought to this subject, says:—

> "We want the power to establish in connexion with a good national school, "which by grants, subscriptions, and pence would almost pay itself, a good "upper school or department to which the farmers' sons and daughters—per-"haps only sons—might be draughted off, and yet kept within the influence of "their former teachers and clergymen. Take a school such as I know, "endowed with 90*l.* a year. The children have free instruction. Why not "abolish this, and let the fund go towards a higher class of master, whose "chief work should be the upper department or middle school? It would "sometimes be necessary and expedient to add a house in which the master "might take boarders."

And similar measures might easily be devised to secure the continued vitality of the Secondary Schools. If any one of them is rich enough, it may properly retain the services of a graduate or a clergyman at the head, but the masterships would generally be filled to more advantage by trained men of superior cultivation with salaries of from 100*l.* to 300*l.* Surplus funds would be properly appropriated to the establishment of girls' schools, under similar supervision, and to the founding of exhibitions to take the choicest of the pupils to a high school.

The High Schools alone can retain with advantage exhibitions direct to the universities, and so long as they are fed by the choicest pupils from the lower schools, and are subject to annual visitation and public report, there will always be the highest guarantee for their continued efficiency.

High schools for girls.

There is a great need in this district for the establishment of ladies' colleges, or institutions for girls, analogous to the high schools for boys, and ranking with them as to the average age of the pupils, the eminence of the teachers, and the quality of the instruction imparted. Whether any part of the wealth now

enjoyed by the great schools, would be willingly spared for the foundation of such institutions, I cannot tell. It will suffice to say, that at this moment, of the funds expressly bequeathed for the encouragement of higher education, there are far more than are now employed or needed for that purpose; that nevertheless, at present, there is absolutely no public provision for the higher education of women in this district; and that, until this district contains both for boys and girls a complete equipment of primary, secondary, and high schools, its educational apparatus will continue ill-organised and insufficient.*

(5.) Widening the curriculum.

And here it seems right to hint at one precaution which is suggested by the history of our experience, and which in all our plans for the future we cannot safely disregard. We in England have suffered long enough from the accident which stereotyped the educational notions of the sixteenth century, and has made them binding upon us ever since. It is indeed a fortunate circumstance that the dissolution of the religious houses, which indirectly occasioned the establishment of so many grammar schools, happened to synchronize with the revival of learning, and with the general prevalence of theories of instruction wiser and broader than any which had existed before. But because the Greek and Latin prescribed in the old statutes constituted the worthiest training accessible to the student of three centuries ago, it does not follow that they are fitted to be for all time the sole instruments of education. I have tried to show that the language of statutes and founders' wills, as now interpreted, not only fails to secure for the scholar of our day the advantages of the ancient discipline, but serves as an excuse for withholding from him any efficient modern substitute for it. And the warning thus suggested is obvious. Let us not try to formulate our nineteenth century notions, however confident we may be in their soundness, and to impose them upon the acceptance of posterity. In all new schemes sanctioned by the Court of Chancery, and in all new legislation, the language descriptive of the school-work ought to be so comprehensive and

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* "Money might be spent upon the education of girls in the upper and middle classes " in four ways,—in building schoolhouses; in founding new schools, with an endow- " ment for the payment of the head-mistress and other teachers; in the endowment " of professorships for the teaching of particular subjects; in the foundation of " scholarships tenable in the school itself, and exhibitions to some higher school or " college. Money judiciously expended in any one of these modes could not fail to " be useful; and there is a certain satisfaction in feeling that it will be almost impos- " sible to avoid doing some good, whatever may be decided upon.

" And first, as to buildings. It is a common subject of complaint among school- " mistresses, that ordinary houses having been built to live in, and not with a view " to any other purpose, are ill adapted for schools; and there can be no doubt that " the practical inconveniences resulting from this fact are very great. The difficulty " of securing sufficient ventilation and other sanitary requisites, is no less, than that " of conducting the school in an orderly and efficient manner in unsuitable rooms. " Sometimes the resource is to join two houses together; sometimes the landlord is " induced to build a schoolroom; but more often, over-crowding, and its many con- " tingent evils have to be endured. The erection of airy and convenient school- " houses would undoubtedly be a very great boon, and one which could not easily be " misused. But at the same time, it is obvious that any appropriation of public funds " to this purpose would require to be carefully watched." - "The Higher Education of Women," by Emily Davies.

elastic that it will leave to our successors full liberty to adapt their schemes to their own wants. However wide and high our conceptions of a right scheme of education may be, it is not too much to hope that later generations will modify or supersede them by other conceptions yet wider and higher. At any rate it is no part of our duty to hamper their action by a too rigid definition of the teaching which satisfies our present aspirations.

By some such means as have been thus indicated it would be possible to secure several important advantages :— Results to be attained by these remedial measures.

(1.) There would be a unity in the working of educational machinery in the district, and the several endowed schools would be in a relation of mutual dependence and help.

(2.) The character of each school would be determined mainly by the average requirements of the children frequenting it; but means would exist for dealing liberally with all exceptional cases.

(3.) A way would be open for the advance by merit of the best pupils from the primary to the secondary, from the secondary to the higher schools, and from the higher schools to the University.

(4.) In schools of all three classes, youths who gave promise of becoming good teachers would receive encouragement, special training and examination, and would be eligible for scholarships and other means of higher education with a view to the profession of schoolmasters.

(5.) Girls would receive suitable education in mixed primary schools, but their secondary and higher instruction would be provided for in separate schools, on the same footing as those for boys, and under the same general management.

Incidentally my attention has often been drawn to the working of other charitable endowments of a nature more or less intimately connected with education. How vast and important such an inquiry would prove, if conducted in an exhaustive manner, may be gathered from the following facts. OTHER CHARITABLE ENDOWMENTS.

The annual revenue of the charities of the entire county of Yorkshire is 36,163*l.* 8*s.* 2*d.*, of which sum 25,638*l.* 9*s.* 11*d.* are appropriated to schools, and 10,524*l.* 18*s.* 3*d.* to various forms of eleemosynary aid to the poor. The number of separate charities is 2,583. The purposes of these several trusts are thus described by Mr. J. P. Fearon :*—

"Of these 2,583 charities taken approximately, so far as they can be "separated, 101 were for grammar schools, 240 for schools not necessarily "classical, and 243 for, or in aid of, educational objects, making a total of 584 "for purposes of education.

"Of the remainder, 1,547 were for the poor, and, as to the larger proportion, "in general terms. Some for poor not receiving parochial relief, others for "poor of certain townships, or particular sects or trades, for poor upon certain "days, and after attending services at particular churches, for poor in bread, "clothes, or coals, for widows and orphans; 158 were for the maintenance of "hospitals or almshouses or additional endowments for the support of their "inmates; 35 for the repairs of the churches and chapels; 83 for the clergy, "either as augmentations of livings or in respect of specific duties to be performed: 63 for sermons or lectures.

* Fearon's Endowed Charities, p. 76.

" The gifts for almshouses, repairs of churches, augmentations of livings, " and for sermons and lectures, are very generally combined with gifts for the " poor, and for education. The gifts for sermons alone are rare; education, " or the poor attending the sermon, being almost universally added.

" There are 12 gifts, wholly or partially, for the benefit of parish clerks; 7, " wholly or partially, for providing the Sacramental elements; 16 for the " distribution of Bibles and other religious books; 10 in aid of the accounts of " churchwardens or overseers, or both; 2 in aid of poor rates; 11, wholly or " partially, for the support of dissenting preachers; 3 for marriage portions to " poor maidens; 3 for loans; and 4 for the promotion of manufactures.

" The following may be taken as specimens of the remainder:

" For charitable uses, at the discretion of the corporation of a town; the " use of a township; the repairs of banks, staiths, and waterworks; for work- " houses or houses of industry; the expenses of a town, and good and benefit " of the inhabitants; charitable uses at the discretion of inhabitants; church " organ; repair of the highways; 'use of the parish;' 'parochial purposes;' " bell ringers; repairs of bridges; finding church-bell ropes; payment of " taxes; ease of poor in their town charges; for maintaining clock; for " maintenance and education of orphans; for annuities to decayed persons; " subscriptions to dispensaries; use of the church; for maintenance of church " services and ornaments of chuach; for widows of the incumbents of a parish, " and if none, for the vicar; for poor widows of beneficed clergymen of par- " ticular district; payment of 'fifteenths' and other charges of the inhabitants; " providing archery butts; for 'setting forth soldiers, making or amending " wills, or otherwise for the benefit of the inhabitants,' &c., &c."

It is manifest that, in the course of eight months, during which I was incessantly engaged in examining schools, I had little opportunity of entering on so fruitful and extensive a field of investigation as this. But I learned enough respecting three forms of benevolence—apprenticeship fees, almshouses and charitable doles—to satisfy me that, in the present condition of this district, they are not only useless, but positively mischievous in their influence on the habits and the character of the poor.

Endowments for apprenticing boys.

In the West Riding, there is so great a demand for juvenile labour, that the custom of paying premiums to masters with apprentices is almost obsolete. Indeed, indentures of apprenticeship are far less common than they once were. Boys are seldom bound to masters; they begin to receive wages almost immediately after they enter a shop; and if a sum is ever paid to an employer, it is in part compensation for a lad's board and lodging for the first year, and not as a fee for instruction in any art or mystery. Yet large sums are in trust for apprenticing poor boys to trades. One of the charities administered by the Wakefield Trustees is called Bromley's Gift. It yields 495*l.* per annum, and is applied to the apprenticing and clothing of poor boys. They are selected from a very narrow area, that of the pupils of a single charity school of a single township. The state of the labour market in Wakefield renders the payment of any premiums to employers wholly unnecessary. Such premiums are, therefore, no longer paid, but clothes are given to the boys during their engagement, a person is employed to take them to church on Sunday, and to give them evening lessons, and a sum of 20*l.* is given to each lad on the completion of his apprenticeship. The purchase of clothes for boys who are fully employed and earning sufficient for their own maintenance, is pure waste; while the handsome sum given at the end of the time is, according to the

testimony of most witnesses, often spent in giving a feast at the public-house, to a large number of friends. The clergy of the town testify almost unanimously to the demoralizing effect of these scenes, and I am assured on all sides that the Governors' apprentices do not bear a high character in the town; that the present distribution of the money encourages idleness and dissipation, and the spirit of pauperism; while it cannot be said to satisfy any one want, economical or social, of the population among whom it is distributed.

At Bingley there is a fund of which about 60*l.* per annum are available for apprenticing boys. But labour commands so high a price that applications are seldom made, and a balance of about 400*l.* has accumulated in the bank. A strong wish has been expressed to me by the vicar and others that the sum not required for this purpose should be made available in some form for the encouragement of higher education.

In Rawden there is a small apprentice fund, but scarcely any boy ever wants to be apprenticed. The only applications for several years past have come from the overseers of the parish, who wished to avail themselves of the fund to save the poor-rates. The trustees find great difficulty in disposing of the money for its original purpose, and would thankfully welcome any scheme which would enable them to apply it to purposes of education.

At Keighley large sums are available for apprenticing; but although the trustees go through the form of providing indentures, which cost 2*s.* 6*d.* each, they feel it would be absurd to pay money to employers, and a gratuity is therefore given to the parents on the occasion of signing the indentures.

It is evident that in these and many other cases, the fund bequeathed for binding boys to trades serves no useful purpose whatever. In the West Riding every industrious boy of 14 can earn good wages while he is learning the rudiments of a trade. The door of admission into all trades is wide open, and needs no artificial aid to keep it so. Nothing is done by the help of trust funds for apprenticeship, which would not be equally well done if they did not exist.

Almshouses.

In several cases almshouses are connected with the grammar school, and are managed by the same body of trustees. Thus it has happened that incidentally I have in the course of the inquiry seen something of the interior of these institutions. Externally they appeal impressively to the imagination, and seem to fulfil other high purposes besides the perpetuation of the founders' names. But in practice the establishment of almshouses is found to constitute one of the most unsatisfactory and wasteful of all the forms which benevolence can assume. It is unsatisfactory, because a community of old people who are compelled to live together, and who have no bond of union except their age and their poverty, is always querulous and unhappy. All the necessary evils of their condition are greatly aggravated by placing them in a class by themselves. The right place for an old man is in the home of one

of his children or friends, in the midst of the young and the happy, to whom he may indirectly render as much service as he can receive in return. To withdraw him from all the cheering influences of life, and to place him under a sort of monastic discipline, is the most mistaken kindness. To expect him late in life to derive any benefit from moral restrictions and religious supervision which are wholly new to him, and perhaps alien to his former habits shows great ignorance of human nature. And it is not less wasteful than unwise. If the money spent in Elizabethan buildings, and in the payment of clerks, gatekeepers, warders, and chaplains, were added to the fund which is divisible among the almsmen, a much larger number might be preserved from want, and provided for comfortably. Even when an old man has survived all his relatives, it is always easy for him to obtain at a cheap rate board and lodging in the house of a person of his own class.

Charitable doles.

And the system of charitable doles to the poor produces results still more mischievous. Almost every parish has its loaves of bread to be given at the church, or its handful of silver to be distributed in small sums to the aged, the impotent, or the poor. Wherever I go I hear stories of the whining, the falsehood, the loss of time, the still more serious loss of self-respect and manliness among the poor, which are encouraged by this form of benevolence. In many cases there is a large dole fund, and yet there are no poor. The labouring people are induced to profess poverty, and idlers are attracted to the parish for the sake of preferring a claim. In other cases I often hear of healthy persons leaving their work, and sacrificing time in which they might have earned 5*s.*, in order to get their names entered on a list to receive 2*s.* 6*d.* In Almondbury, a small village close to Huddersfield, the vicar says that 450*l.* per annum are distributed among the poor. "It is given in sums of 5*s.* or 6*s.*, and the "beneficial result is neither seen nor felt longer than two or three "days at most." A benevolent landowner residing in the neighbourhood testifies—"Our National school is dying for want of "support from a deficiency of funds, while some hundreds a year "are frittered away in eleemosynary gifts, to a class of persons "who could afford—but having been helped, have now no self help "—to send their own children to school, without expecting, and "almost exacting, assistance from their richer neighbours."

At High Bentham, a prosperous little town in which there is absolutely no destitution, there is a charity distributed in sums of from 10*s.* to 35*s.* each to poor families. A gentleman of large influence, a magistrate, taking great interest in the condition of the poor, says of this charity:

"In the majority of cases, I believe that the influence of the charity is "morally bad—causing jealousy—inducing applicants to deceive by incorrect "or coloured statements, teaching working men to depend upon an expectancy, "and often to forestall it in their expenditure with willing tradesmen.

"I am of opinion that these doles carry with them a certain amount of "degradation, and that such gifts do not foster that noble spirit of indepen- "dence and self-reliance which we all seek to cherish. On the other hand, in

" the distribution of a charity of this sort the door is open for the exercise of " partiality and patronage."

The vicar of Ilkley writes to me:—

" About 70*l.* is annually distributed in doles in this parish, and such distri- " bution, I assure you, is the least satisfactory of all charities, doing very little " good and causing much envy and ingratitude; for it is never given to the " right persons unless given to themselves, so the recipients think. About 40*l.* " of this money is received from building leases and given exclusively to the " township of Ilkley, where there is less poverty than in the other townships."

Another clergyman, after pointing out that the intentions of these charities are practically fulfilled by the Poor Law, and that the only good effect of perpetuating them is to relieve the rate-payers in a small degree, though not by any means to the full extent of the doles, from their share of the poor rates, adds: " In " this parish the charities are a nuisance; many of them are " distributed for the sole benefit of publicans, and for the exercise " of the powers of the police. The recipients are a disgrace and " a shame in the eyes of all right-minded people."*

Testimony against doles not quite unanimous.

It is right to add that testimony of this kind, though extremely weighty and even conclusive, is not entirely unanimous. In rural parishes I have occasionally found a clergyman or a magistrate speaking not unfavourably of the working of charitable doles. Thus the Rev. A. F. Woodford, who administers a small fund in Swillington, explained to me that there are 52 recipients, each of whom is entitled to 7*s.* at Christmas and 4*s.* at Easter. He knows the people, keeps their names in a register, and finds the arrangement very helpful to him in his pastoral work. It serves to bind him in a closer relation to them, and to strengthen his influence. At Sedbergh too, where 40 doles of 2*l.* 10*s.* each are annually given to poor householders who do not receive parochial relief, the Vicar assured me that the scheme did not work ill, but that it had the indirect effect of encouraging needy people in their efforts " to keep off the parish."

So at Selby the sum of 50*l.* per annum is distributed by the feoffees in sums of 5*s.* and 2*s.* 6*d.*, and in doles of bread. These gentlemen, who are persons of the highest standing in the town, go round on S. Thomas's Day dividing among them all the streets in which the poor reside. They know all the poor, and this helps them to know them better. The money thus entrusted to them

* The Mayor of Beverley, after describing to me the numerous trusts which exist in that town for charitable purposes, adds, " To obtain these sums the poor have to " appear at certain times before the trustees when, of course, their aim is to repre- " sent their families as large and as helpless, and their means of support as small, as " possible. Misrepresentations are so frequent, that the advertisements of intended " distributions warn the applicants that false statements of any kind will subject them " to perpetual exclusion from the charities. When the sums are large, constant " employment is not advantageous to the father of a family; and when they are small, " they are hardly worth the trouble of applying for them. In no case can mere " doles confer a permanent benefit, and they are most generally either spent in " anticipation, or wasted as soon as received. Those of the poor, who do not happen " to come within the scope of the charity, complain of their exclusion, and attri- " bute it to political or other unworthy motives on the part of the distributors, or " make it the occasion and excuse for asking charity of the public."

for "pious uses" is scrupulously guarded, and the accounts which I examined are kept with commendable exactness. And the testimony both of the vicar and parishioners is that the feoffees, are very popular, and that the distribution "tends to promote good feeling and kindness all round." It is admitted, however, even here that the people whose names are down on the list often discount their claim beforehand, and look upon the money as their absolute right.

Probable reasons for this.

There can be little doubt that any attempt to appropriate these gifts to other purposes would be regarded by some among the poor as a grievance. They are necessarily ignorant of economic laws, they are incapable of estimating the general effect of systematic almsgiving on the moral character of the class to which they belong, they simply see that certain money which is to be had for the asking, is theirs by right, and they try to get it. The sturdy Yorkshire peasant refuses to discuss what *ought* to be in a matter of this kind. He is content to know what *is*. He suspects there are schemes of robbery and confiscation lying hid in all these inquiries. Meanwhile he is clear on one point. The money belongs to the parish, and it belongs to the poor. "Why should t'lion and t'unicorn get howd on't?"

On the other hand, it should be borne in mind that the poor are not the only persons interested in the maintenance of eleemosynary trusts. Take the case of the Holgate Hospital, at Hemsworth. It is an almshouse for poor men and women, who are chosen from a very small area in a district where there is little or no poverty. The income amounted to 2,306*l.* 6*s.* 10*d.* when the Commission instituted its inquiries in 1828. It has since largely increased, and when the cost of the handsome new buildings shall have been defrayed, a sum little short of 5,000*l.* a year will be available for the decayed poor of four little rural parishes. There are 20 inmates, and for the spiritual oversight of these old people, there is a clergyman who is entitled to one-fifth of the revenue, and whose present salary from the charity is 550 guineas, besides a handsome house, with large garden, coach-house, and other advantages. The gentlemen who manage a trust of this kind, have thus a very valuable patronage to dispense. It is not with them that proposals to make a more useful appropriation of the money are likely to originate.

On the whole, it has become evident to me, in the course of this inquiry, that any attempt to alienate eleemosynary gifts to nobler purposes, will meet with considerable resistance, not so much from the class for whose benefit the endowments were designed, as from the zealous and benevolent people who are now devoting their time to the voluntary task of administering the trusts. I believe that among these gentlemen there is often a genuine interest in the poor, but an interest not wholly unmingled with a sense of the consequence and importance of their own functions as patrons and benefactors. To many people it is not disagreeable to sit at a board and receive the deferential homage of applicants for relief, or the clumsy bows of poor boys who are paraded before

them to receive good advice or a prayer-book. They like to be waited on at home by humble petitioners for a signature or a vote, and to be looked upon generally as the dispensers of small bits of local patronage. But it is to be wished that charitable persons would oftener reflect on the influence they are exerting on the character of their humbler neighbours. Next to vice, I know nothing much more degrading to the poor man than the constant habit of standing cap in hand to his "betters." If he be unhappily in a position of dependence, such deference is seemly enough; but in the West Riding the number of people who need be in such a position is very small, and would be smaller still, but for the eleemosynary foundations which have done so much to create the spirit of pauperism, and for the kindly but injudicious people who like to keep that spirit alive.

Present powers of the Charity Commission.

Throughout the district I hear constantly expressed the wish that the Charity Commission could be enlarged, and its powers extended, so as to deal promptly and equitably with cases of this sort. Everywhere I have heard incidentally of small endowments lying beyond the range of the inquiry which I was commissioned to conduct, and have been told that they greatly needed investigation. But while a strong desire is often expressed for the intervention of the Charity Commission, it is not generally known that the powers of that Commission are greatly restricted. It is not understood that it cannot initiate proceedings; that it is powerless to act even in the worst cases, except at the request of inhabitants; that its right to act summarily is restricted to endowments of very small value; and that, when in full operation, it can only act in accordance with the traditions of the Court of Chancery. The disappointment which people express at the delay of necessary reforms, arises often from a false conception as to the omnipotence of the Commission.

Not adequate to the necessities of the case.

Thus an abuse may remain long unremedied, simply because the Charity Commission is not even cognizant of its existence. For example: there is an ancient endowment at Kirkleatham for the maintenance of a grammar school. The estates yield a clear revenue of 217*l.* 10*s.*, but the school has been in abeyance for many years. When I visited the place, it was difficult to identify even the site on which the school had stood. In July, 1855, a scheme for the resuscitation of the school was drawn up and approved by the Court of Chancery. But in May, 1866, nothing had been done to carry out the scheme. The Trustees themselves had not been made officially aware of their responsibility, and no steps were taken until the present year to bring the affairs within the knowledge of the Charity Commission.

The *cy pres* doctrine.

It is also to be desired that some definite principle should be recognized as to the use to be made of endowments when they are diverted from one purpose to another. At present the Court of Chancery, or the Charity Commission acting in minor cases, has power to propound a scheme for the administration of a fund *cy pres*, when the original trust is clearly mischievous or useless.

At Bingley, the inhabitants applied in 1844 for a new appropriation of Wooler's gift, and the Master in Chancery declared that one moiety should still be available for apprenticing, and the rest for the establishment of a dispensary, but that no part of it should be applied to any educational purpose. At Bridlington, where there are two endowments, the one for a grammar school and the other for a knitting school, besides large sums for charitable doles, the Charity Commission proposed to employ part of the revenue now wasted, to the establishment of a dispensary, and part to the conversion of the grammar school into a union workhouse school. But the crying want of the place—that of a good secondary school—was not recognized in the proposal. It seems to be an established rule in Equity that a dispensary is *cy pres* to a charitable dole, and is the best equivalent for it. But it is much to be wished that a good secondary school should be admitted by the same authority to be *cy pres* to an effete grammar school; and that apprentice funds when not needed for trade should be applied to the purpose nearest akin to the original intention, viz., the founding of exhibitions to schools or colleges, or pupil-teacherships in middle schools.

Working of the existing law in regard to the annual accounts to be presented to the Commission.

Again, there is a clause in the Charitable Trusts Act of 1853 confirmed and amplified in Section 44 of the Charitable Trusts Amendment Act, c. 124, 18 & 19 Vict., which requires that a copy of all accounts of receipts and expenditure shall be annually transmitted to the Board of Charity Commissioners. The fact that this provision exists is very generally known, and it suffices to put a stop to many inconvenient local inquiries. It is commonly believed that the clause is penal and that the Commissioners habitually enforce it; but this is not the case. In practice the law is habitually obeyed even at the cost of great inconvenience, by the best and most conscientious trustees. But in other cases it is frequently disregarded. I have met with charities whose managers inform me, in reply to my questions, that they have never once complied with the requirements of the Act; and there are numerous instances in which the existence of this law serves only to give shelter and some measure of public confidence to the very persons who are least entitled to them. Two examples of this will suffice.

Lord Wharton's Bible Charity.

In 1692, Philip Lord Wharton bequeathed some estates in Yorkshire upon "trust that the rents and profits should be em-
"ployed for the buying of English Bibles of the translation
"required by authority, and catechisms, to be distributed yearly
"to and amongst poor children that can read." The will prescribes
"that 1050 Bibles with the singing psalms bound up therewith
"shall be yearly provided and the like number of catechisms,
"entitled the 'Grounds and Principles of the Christian Religion,
"with the Proofs thereof out of the Scriptures.'" An inscription or stamp is directed to be on the outside of each book with the words "By the will of Philip Lord Wharton. Every
"child to whom a book is given is required to learn the 1st, 15th,
"25th, 37th, 101st, 113th, and 145th Psalms."* Further direc-

* *See* the Report of the Charity Commission for 1820, p. 467.

tions are given in the will respecting the mode of distribution, the proportion of books to be granted to the several towns (chiefly in Yorkshire), and the preaching of ten sermons by turns in the parish churches "on the usefulness, sufficiency, and excellency, "of the Holy Scriptures and the people's right to have them in "fully in their own language." A further direction is given that in case there should be a surplus the same should be employed for buying more Bibles and Catechisms to be distributed in such other places as the trustees shall think fit. This trust is nowadministered in London by a committee of noblemen and gentlemen, who fill up the vacancies in their number, and not one of whom has any local connexion with Yorkshire. In 1820 the income of this charity amounted to 782*l.* 12*s.* exclusive of the interest on a debt of 410*l.* which was then due, and which was secured by mortgage on an estate in York. The degree in which the income has since increased cannot now be ascertained, as the trustees decline to give any information on this point. But it is certain that the increase in the number of books distributed in this district is not proportional to the probable increase in the value of the property, nor to the remarkable reduction in the price of Bibles which has taken place in the course of the last few years. Many of the incumbents of the parishes assure me that the gift of from 20 to 150 Bibles with a similar number of Crossman's Catechisms and a few reward books is not unacceptable, and that the books are distributed with care in accordance with the printed instructions annually sent by the trustees. On the other hand much dissatisfaction is expressed with regard to the working of the charity. The Bibles are clumsy and ill-bound. Crossman's Catechism has been substituted for the puritan compendium named in the author's will. It consists of questions on the Church Catechism, and is generally considered by teachers to be obsolete and of very little use. Moreover, there is a provision in the testator's will that the sum of 2*s.* 6*d.* shall be given to the distributor for every ten Bibles wherever it is applied for; and this sum is not paid even in cases in which it has been repeatedly demanded. The whole of the charity is distributed through the hands of the clergy, and the trustees now require that the Church catechism shall be learned by every recipient of a Bible or reward. Yet there is no such condition in the will of the testator, for Philip Lord Wharton was a Puritan soldier who fought under the Earl of Essex against Charles I. at Edgehill,* who was a companion and friend of John Howe, and who sat as a lay member in the Westminster Assembly. Throughout the district there is a feeling that the advantages derived from this charity are wholly inadequate to its resources and that its administration might be greatly improved. But those who have spoken to me on this subject have generally added, "Of course the accounts are over-"hauled every year by the Charity Commissioners, and all is sure "to be right." I took the opportunity, therefore, when in London,

* *See* Macaulay's History of England, Vol. III., 336, and V., 205 (Edition 1863), and Clarendon's History of the Rebellion, Book VI.

of personally examining the accounts which the trustees had sent in to that Commission. I found (June 1866) that the provisions of the Act of Parliament had not been complied with by Lord Wharton's trustees since the year 1858. The balance-sheet of that year accounted for a total sum of 1,356*l.* 10*s.* 2*d.* as follows: 700*l.* expended for the purpose of the charity, 34*l.* 0*s.* 6*d.* paid to the secretary, and a balance of 622*l.* 9*s.* 8*d.* carried forward to the next year. No details were given with reference to the expenditure of the 700*l.* There were no vouchers, and it was impossible to gain from the accounts any information respecting the number of books purchased, the sum which had been paid for them, or the cost of distribution. In a case like this the check supposed to be furnished by the Charity Act is completely illusory. The letter of the law had been wholly disregarded by withholding the annual account for eight years. Its spirit is equally set at nought by a statement so meagre that little or nothing can be learned from it.

Boocock's Charity.

There is in Keighley a trust called Boocock's Charity for the apprenticeship of five boys and for the relief of the poor. In 1827 the Commission reported that the income was 340*l.* 2*s.* 6*d.*, that "about 15*l.* was spent in apprenticing five poor boys, while "the remainder was distributed in vestry according to the state of "the families and necessities of the poor, at the discretion of the "minister and churchwardens." On inquiry I ascertained that the trust is now managed by seven inhabitants of the town, who fill up vacancies in their own number. The vicar is not on the trust, and it is no longer administered in connexion with the Church. Since the system of apprenticeship is now obsolete, the whole revenue is annually available in the form of doles to the poor. The money is distributed half-yearly, and there are in all 1,000 recipients per annum. Even those who speak most favourably of the working of this charity do not allow that there are 1,000 people in so prosperous a town as Keighley who need such aid. Now, at the office of the Charity Commissioners I found that between 1859 and 1866 no returns had been sent in from this charity. The balance sheet for 1859 showed on the "Cr." side two items, viz., Balance in bank, 232*l.* 2*s.* 9*d.*, and Income from real estate, 706*l.* 6*s.* 3*d.* On the "Dr." side, To distribution in small sums, 541*l.* 5*s.* 9*d.*, Dinners and expenses, 24*l.* 9*s.* 2*d.* The remainder of the 938*l.* 9*s.*, with the exception of a small balance of 7*l.*, was set down under various heads for the repair, improvement, and management of the estates. But no details whatever were given in relation to the 541*l.* 5*s.* 9*d.*, as to the number of recipients, or the sums bestowed. It is manifest that accounts of this kind, sent at such long intervals and containing so few particulars, are of little or no value as a security for the wise management of so important a charity.

I refer to these cases, not strictly within the province of the duty assigned to me, merely to indicate the direction in which further inquiries might be advantageously pursued, and the need of a more energetic supervision of public charities. It is not only

in educational and quasi-educational charities that money is wasted through the operation of restrictions which have proved to be obsolete. In a hundred ways the will of the departed founders is constantly quoted as a reason for the maintenance of usages which are acknowledged, even by their defenders, to be pernicious.* "The living," said Comte, "are more and more governed by the dead." Every year witnesses an increase in the amount of these charitable accumulations and imposes a heavier burden upon those who are called upon to carry out the intentions of their fathers: And I am everywhere confronted with the question: "How "long ought this to last? If 50 years after a man's death it "becomes clear that he has made a mistaken estimate of the "wants of his successors; why should he be permitted any longer "to injure and demoralize them by his crude schemes of philan-"thropy or to stupify them by his false or narrow theory of "education?"

PROPRIETARY SCHOOLS.

In the instructions with which I was furnished by your secretary, my attention was especially called to "proprietary schools, "or schools which, not being endowed, are private property, but "are owned by single proprietors, or by proprietary bodies dis-"tinct from the schoolmasters." PROPRIETARY SCHOOLS.

The most important experience furnished by this district in relation to this class of institutions may be summed up in two sentences:—

All the schools which have been established by joint-stock companies, for the promotion of general education, have proved to be commercial failures. Of two classes.

The only proprietary schools which have succeeded are those founded by religious bodies for the education of their own children, and managed on a more or less exclusive principle.

About 30 years ago much public dissatisfaction with the existing means of education was felt in this district. It was believed that large schools, on a proprietary basis, would supply the want; and simultaneous efforts were made in York, Wakefield, Huddersfield, Hull, and Sheffield, to form joint-stock companies for the purpose. The history of these experiments is instructive. Failure of the proprietary principle.

In York a body of shareholders was formed, the shares being at 50*l.* each. They spent all the money they raised in buying land and building a handsome Elizabethan school with master's house. They borrowed 4,000*l.* on mortgage of these newly ac- York.

* The multitude of gifts and endowments may soon be excessive and detrimental to a nation. Charity, where it is too extensive, seldom fails of producing sloth and idleness and is good for little in the Commonwealth but to breed drones and destroy industry. The more colleges and almshouses you build, the more you may. The first founders and benefactors may have just and good intentions, and would, perhaps, for their own reputations seem to labour for the most laudable purposes, but the executors of those wills, the governors that come after them, have quite other views, and we seldom see charities long applied as it was first intended they should be.—MANDEVILLE.

quired premises, in order to put all into working order. They afterwards borrowed a second sum of money for which the board of directors made themselves personally responsible. Thus loaded with debt, they opened the school with a staff of masters, the united salaries of whom amounted to about 1,000*l.* a year. The school fee was fixed at 10*l.* per annum. The number of scholars at the opening was about 30. In a few months it increased to 100 and had some promise of doing well, when the directors took alarm at their position, and reduced their staff of masters. This shook the confidence of the public. The end of it was that the school dragged on a doubtful existence for seven years, at the end of which the directors lost the amount of the second loan, the shareholders lost all the amount of their shares, and the school premises were sold to the Dean and Chapter for 4,000*l.*; or, in other words, were given to them on condition of their taking them with the debt of 4,000*l.* upon them, which was considered to be about their market value. S. Peter's Grammar School in York is therefore now located in premises which were built for the proprietary school; and has taken excellent advantage of the failure of that institution.

The Yeoman's School.

There is a second school in the same city which was also erected by a body of subscribers. It was called the Yeoman School. The story of its embarrassments and subsequent failure is recounted in the evidence of Mr. H. S. Thompson, the late M.P. for Whitby, one of its most active promoters. It may suffice to say here that this building also was purchased by the trustees of an endowed school, Archbishop Holgate's, on terms very favourable to that institution, but attended with serious loss to the original promoters of the Yeoman school.

Wakefield.

At Wakefield a similar disaster occurred to the promoters of a large proprietary school. In 1833 a building was erected at a cost of 7,000*l.*, and adapted for 300 scholars. For a time it succeeded well, but before 20 years had elapsed its reputation declined, its shares became unsaleable, the proprietors were heavily in debt, and the building was sold by auction at a great sacrifice in the year 1854. The trustees of the grammar school became the purchasers and obtained it on easy terms.

Sheffield.

The Sheffield Collegiate School was instituted in 1835 by a proprietary holding 107 shares of 25*l.* each, the full number of 120 shares having never been taken up. The school has never paid a dividend to the shareholders. The total cost of the school and school-house including land amounted to between 9,000*l.* and 10,000*l.*; and in order to reduce the debt it was found necessary to appropriate for the purpose an exhibition fund of about 3,000*l.*, leaving a total debt now on the school of 3,000*l.*, besides 1,500*l.* which is owing to a bank. As a proprietary school the institution is now virtually extinct. The building is now in the hands of a gentleman, who, being only a tenant, is in no respect under the supervision of the original trustees. He pays to them a rent which is just sufficient to meet the interest on the debt of 4,500*l.*, and to enable them to discharge the obligations which usually fall on landlords. It happens that under the energetic

management of the Rev. G. B. Atkinson, the school is now in a high state of efficiency, and that it takes the lead among the educational establishments of Sheffield.* But this circumstance does not render the failure of the proprietary principle less apparent. For the shareholders have lost every shilling of their original investment, and the institution is now essentially a private school.

Huddersfield.

At Huddersfield, which does not possess an endowed grammar school, there are two distinct institutions on the proprietary principle, both founded about 25 years ago. The first was called the Huddersfield College,* and established on a religious but Catholic basis, so as to be available for all classes of Christians. The Bible was to be taught, but no Creed or Catechism. Since a good deal of religious partisanship existed in the town at this time; this experiment was denounced as a Godless and irreligious one by many parties. Accordingly a second or rival institution, under the name of the Collegiate School, was set up, at a cost of 9,000*l.* It was also designed to give a high education, but it promised to possess an exclusively Church of England character. The master was to be in orders, and the Catechism and the Thirty-nine Articles were to be carefully taught.

Of these two schools the former has had the greater success. It has 150 boys, while the Collegiate has 28. Yet each institution has weakened the other. Both have been commercial failures. The College, though an eminently useful and well ordered institution, pays no dividend. The "Collegiate" has involved its promoters in serious liability, and is kept up with difficulty.

The religious difficulty.

Huddersfield is the only place in the West Riding in which the religious difficulty seems to have seriously impeded the success of the proprietary experiment. There was much angry debate, and by extreme parties the one school is still stigmatised as High Church and the other as irreligious. Both imputations are, in fact, equally groundless. In visiting both schools I was again struck with a fact of which I have had many illustrations before—that the religious controversies which seem important on platforms and in public discussions, shrink into great insignificance when one enters the walls of a schoolroom. It is not of the points on which Christian people differ that a wise teacher has much to say in the presence of young children. And, in practice, the difference between the religious teaching of the two schools was far less than either their enthusiastic enemies or supporters would be ready to

* I had the advantage of examining the Sheffield Collegiate School and the Huddersfield College, both of which seem to me under the present management to combine the advantages of the system of classical teaching, with a fuller recognition of the claims of modern literature and science, than is usual in schools aiming so high. At Sheffield there were 83 boys, among whom were some qualified to proceed *per saltum* to Cambridge and to take an honorable position there. The intelligence of the lower classes, and the thoroughness with which all the classical work was made to tell upon it were also very striking. Huddersfield has a broader curriculum, and English philology occupies a more conspicuous place. On the whole, the course pursued in the higher classes corresponds more nearly to the requirements of the University of London, in which institution many of its pupils have acquired distinction. But in all its equipments, in the organization of its teaching power, and in the character of the instruction itself, the school has few rivals in the district.

believe. Both are Christian schools. In the College, which is in no respect a dissenting institution, the Bible is carefully taught, books like Whately's Christian Evidences are studied, and the whole tone of the teaching is elevating and religious. Many of the boys belong to Church of England families, and several are the sons of clergymen. And in the Collegiate School, although the Catechism is taught, it is not so enforced as to exclude the children of Dissenters. The religious instruction is mainly Biblical; and of the Thirty-nine Articles or of distinctive theology of any kind, little or no evidence is to be found. The great practical difference between the schools is, that the constitution of the one has left the council free to select for their master a layman of good academic position, and great scholastic experience; while that of the other has obliged the trustees to select a clergyman. As both schools are designed mainly for day pupils, and as the head master of the Collegiate holds a benefice in the neighbourhood, the advantage claimed by that institution over its rival is hardly great enough to constitute its only *raison d'être.*

Hull.

The important town of Hull was not included in my specimen district, but I have since had occasion to visit it on behalf of the Commission, and I find that the history of its educational experiments gives very similar results. A gentleman fully conversant with the whole of the transactions, gives me the following narrative:—"About 30 years since, the Kingston College, a proprietary "school, was founded in Hull, upon the principles of the Church "of England. Shortly afterwards, the Dissenters established the "Hull College upon professedly non-sectarian principles. Although "I am not aware that these principles were departed from, the "school subsequently became recognized as a dissenting one, and "was in reality in a great measure sectarian. This was, doubt-"less, in some degree an indirect result of the existence of the "Kingston College. Churchmen as a body sent their children "to the one, Dissenters to the other; the Principal of the one "was a Churchman and a Tory, and a strong political partisan. "The Principal of the other during the closing years of its "career was a representative dissenting minister, performing occa-"sional duties, a Liberal, and a graduate of Dublin. Both insti-"tutions failed financially, but though neither was very remark-"able for educational success, both did great good in the town. "The Hull College was closed in 1852. The Kingston, within "a very short period, also entailed great pecuniary loss on the "proprietors. I attribute the failure of these colleges to the "antagonism existing between them, the result of the religious "and political feeling which gave rise to and embittered their "rivalry; to financial embarrassment arising from the large loans "contracted in order to meet a lavish, and, under the circum-"stances, imprudent expenditure in the school buildings, and to "the absence of a population at that time adequate in number to "support two first-class institutions."

Bradford High School.

There is one institution of recent growth for which one may anticipate a happier future. The Bradford High School was

established by some of the leading manufacturers, among whom were some German gentlemen, with a view to combine the solid advantages of the best English schools with certain objects which at present are only attainable in the best German seminaries. The following extract from the original prospectus will show the intention of its founders:—

"The Bradford High School had its origin in the wish to unite the influence of home with the instruction and other advantages that can only be afforded by public schools.

"The English, French, and German languages, and the Physical Sciences, besides being taught for their practical utility, are employed as instruments of mental training; they are accordingly put upon an equal footing with Classics and Mathematics in determining a boy's place in the school, and in awarding prizes.

"The school is entirely unsectarian. The Holy Scriptures are made the subject of a reverent and careful study, but there is no interference with the teaching which a boy may receive at home or in the church to which he may belong."

The experiment is succeeding most hopefully, and the institution appears to be well adapted to meet one of the greatest wants of the town. Yet it has not proved an exception to the general rule. In the third year of its existence, on its present footing, it has only 49 pupils, and its maintenance still entails a considerable sacrifice on its enterprising promoters.

The general result appears to be, that of nine great proprietary schools in this county; viz., two in York, two in Hull, two in Huddersfield, one in Sheffield, one in Wakefield, and one in Bradford, none have had any commercial success; and that with the exception of three none are now enjoying any educational success. Five of them are now extinct.

To these statements it may be added in passing, that in none of the institutions I have thus enumerated has any provision been made for the education of girls. No better proof could be given of the purely utilitarian and commercial aim of the founders of these joint-stock companies. It does not seem that even in the enthusiasm of early success the extension of the benefit of the proprietary principle to girls has ever been even contemplated.

General reasons for the failure of these schools.

The reasons of this uniform failure are not, at this distance of time, easy to discover. Want of experience, resulting in mistaken calculations and extravagant expenditure, is assigned as one fruitful cause of failure. Sometimes the undertaking has collapsed, owing to an injudicious change of masters:* and frequently because the relations of the several masters to each other was ill-defined, or their responsibility divided. In several cases the members of the governing body have kept in their own hands the appointment of all under-masters. In others, they have interfered unduly with

* It must not be forgotten, that in this respect, the worst endowed school has the advantage over one set up by a joint stock company. It cannot be ruined by a bad master. Its vitality may be suspended but cannot be quite destroyed. A school like Sedbergh or Skipton has, in its endowment, an element of permanence even though it may be for years a disgrace and scandal to the neighbourhood. A change of masters may at any moment revive it. But three or four years of maladministration may make the most flourishing proprietary school insolvent, and deprive it of all power to recover itself.

the internal management of the school. One or two proprietary bodies have consisted at first of parents who watched with care the interests of the school, so long as their own sons were under instruction, but who ceased to concern themselves with it after they had grown up. Others have consisted of shareholders who, having no other than pecuniary interest at stake, have been too sensitive on the subject of dividends, and have made capricious and mischievous changes from time to time in the constitution of the school, with a view to some immediate economy. In all cases the schools seem to have suffered from two causes—the want of a sufficiently practical and definite plan of action, and the want of some means of ensuring the steadfast prosecution of the plan when it had been adopted.

The proprietary schools belonging to religious bodies.

Remarks of this kind do not, however, apply to the class of proprietary schools, which I have already distinguished as being under the care of religious bodies. The district comprises three great establishments, belonging to the Society of Friends, two belonging to the *Unitas Fratrum*, or Moravian body, two to the Wesleyans, one to the Independents, and one to the Primitive Methodists. It is not a little remarkable that, with the exception of the Huddersfield Collegiate School, already mentioned, the district does not contain a single Proprietary school under Church of England influence.

The Society of Friends. Ackworth.

In the village of Ackworth, near Pontefract, there is a large building originally erected by the Governors of the Foundling Hospital, which with the adjoining estate was purchased by the Society of Friends, in 1778, for the purpose of a school. It is the largest and nearly the oldest boarding school in Yorkshire. The spirit in which this institution originated is well described in the following characteristic minute, of the yearly meeting of 1777, at which the subject was first considered:—

> "It is the renewed concern of this meeting, to recommend a care for the "offspring of parents whose earnings or income are so small, as to render them "incapable of giving their children a suitable and guarded education; and "that especially from home, by which they may be prevented from mixing "with others who are not of our religious persuasion, which so often leads into "hurtful habits, from which they are not afterwards easily reclaimed. And as "some of our members may incautiously permit their offspring to suffer this "great loss, rather than apply for assistance from their monthly meetings, it is "recommended to friends in every monthly meeting to seek out such of their "members as may be thus straitened, and administer to their help; and it is "desired that such will receive the salutary aid, with a willing mind, and "thankfulness to the great Author of all good."

The intention of the founders has been admirably carried out. There are now 152 boys and 118 girls in the school, under the care of 18 teachers and a general superintendent. The school is expressly founded for the children of parents "not in affluence;" and the sums payable for each child vary from 12*l.* to 21*l.* per head, according to the known circumstances of the respective parents. The deficiency is made up from annual subscriptions, the income arising from invested property, donations, and legacies. No distinction of

rank, however, is recognizable in the school itself. The course of instruction is faithfully described in the regulations as "a sound useful education, rather than one of a showy or superficial character." In the girls' school I was especially struck with the beauty and finish of the reading, and of all the written exercises. In both schools, geography, history, English grammar, and experimental science are well and intelligently taught. Instruction is also given in Latin and French. Greek is not attempted. The whole curriculum contemplates the removal of the pupils at about 15. I cannot sufficiently express my admiration of the order, seriousness, and repose of this great institution, nor my sense of the advantage which its pupils enjoy in the watchful supervision of the society to which they belong.

Bootham.

There are two institutions in the city of York which have been established for the use of the richer members of the society, and in which a more advanced education is given. At Bootham, in York, there are 59 pupils, all of whom are boarders. There are five resident masters. Here I found 15 of the pupils reading Greek, 24 learning German, while all except four of the youngest had commenced Latin and French. The classical course includes prose composition, but not versification. In point of grammatical accuracy and in knowledge of the meaning of the more familiar writers, as Horace, Xenophon, and Livy, the boys were on a par with the pupils of the best grammar schools. Their general English and scientific education, however, was far more extensive. Modern history, English literature, and mathematics receive far more than the usual share of attention; while the provision made for the systematic study of natural science is more ample than in any school I ever visited. There is an excellent observatory, erected and furnished at a cost of nearly 300*l.*, in which the boys are accustomed to make and register astronomical observations. In chemistry, botany, and animal physiology, regular courses of conversational lectures are given which are amply illustrated by diagrams and experiments, and duly supplemented by book work.

The Mount.

The institution for girls in another part of the city is at present occupied by 35 pupils. The building was erected at a cost of 6,488*l.*, and is admirably adapted for its purpose. The staff consists of a lady superintendent and four resident mistresses, besides one or two visiting teachers. The curriculum of instruction is remarkable for the small proportion of effort devoted to accomplishments and the large share to intellectual culture. Accordingly this school stands out in marked contrast to the majority of ladies' schools. Some attention has been given to drawing and painting, chiefly of flowers; but the examination of the school furnished unusual evidence of thoughtful reading and of general knowledge, especially in ancient and modern history. French is carefuly taught, and the neatness and precision of the written work ufficed to show the orderly mental habits which had been generated by the educational system pursued in the school.*

* See the evidence of Mr. John Ford, who has long held the position of superintendent of the "Friends'" school in York, and who is still greatly trusted by the Society as an adviser in all eductional matters.

Attention paid by the Society of Friends to the art of teaching.

Next to the gentleness of the moral discipline, nothing characterizes the schools of the Society of Friends more than the style of the teaching which prevails in them all. I noticed on the part of all the teachers a professional aptitude and a skill in oral explanation and in collective teaching which are very unusual in higher schools. I attribute this to the fact that the Friends are the only religious body in which there is a distinct recognition of the need for training, and a definite provision to meet that need. Ten of the pupils in the ladies' school at York are specially designed as teachers, are entrusted with a share of the discipline, and are required to give occasional lessons. A similar arrangement obtains at Ackworth, where nine of the younger teachers are in the position of apprentices.

The "Flounders Institute."

A separate benefaction has been made by the Society for this purpose, and within the last 18 years there has been added to the little Quaker colony at Ackworth a new institution which is remarkable as the only training college for middle-class teachers in this district. In 1848, Mr. Benjamin Flounders, of Yarm, placed in the hands of trustees the sum of 40,000*l.*, the interest of which he dedicated to the perpetual maintenance of a supply of well-qualified teachers for the "schools and families of Friends." No part of this munificent gift was expended in the purchase of a building, but a separate subscription, amounting to nearly 7,000*l.*, was raised for that purpose. An estate of six acres, contiguous to the Ackworth school property, was purchased, and a handsome building was erected as a collegiate residence for the principal and the students. The original gift invested in the three per cents. produces an annual income of 1,200*l.* I found nine students in residence, the maximum number contemplated by the trustees being twelve. The course of instruction lasts three years, and an examination of the registers of the college showed me that the institution had well fulfilled its purpose. It appears that in England and Ireland about 70 masters in all are now employed in schools belonging to the society, and that of them more than half have been educated in the Flounders Institution, while others are engaged in domestic tuition in the society. Out of 73 who had passed through the institution since its establishment it appeared that only 19 were now engaged in other employments, and that of them a considerable number had been for a time engaged in teaching.*

The curriculum adopted in this institution corresponds very closely to the requirements of the University of London. Of the nine students, five had already graduated, and four were about to present themselves for matriculation. All the pupils are encouraged to prepare themselves for the examinaion. This is not prescribed by the governing body, but the practice has been suggested and confirmed by experience; and the Principal assured

* This institution is so unique in its character and objects, hat the following statement of the relative cost of the various items included in the annual expenditure of 1,200*l.* may be read with interest:—housekeeping, 390*l.*; garden, 50*l.*; insurance, 14*l.*; stationery, 9*l.*; books, 22*l.*; apparatus, 18*l.*; furniture, 17*l.* salaries, 574*l.*; repairs, 38*l.*; balance, 93*l.*

me that by adapting the college teaching to the scheme of the various examinations in the University, he not only obtains the advantage of an impartial test for his work, but also is helped to pursue the course which he believes best fitted for the requirements of the students.

In placing this institution in close proximity with the great school at Ackworth, its founders probably contemplated some such relation between the two as that which usually subsists between a training college and its practising school. This design, however, if it existed, has not been carried out. I cannot doubt that if in addition to the present course lectures were given in the Institute on the theory and practice of education; and if the students were required in turn to go down to the school and take a share, under supervision, in its ordinary teaching, both institutions would be the gainers. The school would avail itself from time to time of any special gift which the students possessed, and the college would obtain for its pupils a more complete and practical training for the special work which they have to do.

The Moravian Schools at Fulneck.

The Moravian settlement of Fulneck is situated in the heart of the West Riding, not far from Pudsey. It consists of a long row of picturesque buildings of various dates standing upon a terrace. The grounds slope down to a deep wooded valley, which is so happily placed as to sequester the institution from the smoke and roar of the neighbouring factories. To one who travels from Leeds to Bradford past a succession of manufacturing villages and ghastly chimneys, and blackened footways; it is a striking thing to turn suddenly aside into the midst of the quaint little community at Fulneck, with its ancient chapel, its brethren's and sisters' houses, its choir house, its widows' house, and its school.

The school dates from 1753, and was originally intended for the children of ministers only. Its benefits were afterwards offered to the brotherhood generally, and of late, arrangements have been made for the admission of a few children whose parents are not of the Moravian communion. The intimate connexion of this institution with others belonging to the brethren at Neuwied and Herrenhut, has resulted in the presence from time to time of a large proportion of German teachers; and this circumstance has had an important influence on the methods of instruction. I found 80 boys and 42 girls in residence, under the care of a clerical director, with an ample staff of male and female teachers. I had the opportunity of examining both schools, orally and in writing. The English course was comprehensive and thorough. The boys had been well grounded in the elements of Latin, and some read a Latin author with ease. Great attention had been given to arithmetic, English history, and to general literature; in all of which the children of both sexes gave me excellent answers. French is taught to a considerable number; German to a larger proportion of the scholars than usual. Especial attention has always been given by the Moravians to the cultivation of music of a high class for the purpose of congregational worship; and the study of vocal and instrumental music is here carried to a point of excellence very rare in schools. Portions of Haydn's and of

Mozart's masses were sung to me with admirable sweetness and precision by a choir comprising more than half of the pupils and teachers. In this particular Fulneck school differs from the Quaker seminary at Ackworth: but it resembles that institution in the stillness and seriousness of its work, in the watchful religious discipline of its superintending authorities, and in that feeling of brotherly unity among the teachers which is infused by the traditions of the place and by the possession of a common faith.

Silcoates.

The Northern Congregational school at Silcoates near Wakefield was founded in 1831 by a body of Independents, chiefly with a view to furnish education to the sons of ministers on economical terms. The fee for this class of pupils is fixed at 15*l.* per head, the remainder being made up by subscriptions. The reputation of the school is, however, so good under its present management, that 30 other scholars have been attracted by it, and the accommodation is insufficient for the present number. The total cost of boarding and education, exclusive of French and other extras, has been reduced by judicious economy to 30*l.* I did not examine the pupils here, but Dr. Bewglass the head master explained to me with considerable care the general organization and methods, which are well calculated to secure an efficient English and semi-classical education to the pupils.

Wesleyan institutions.

The Wesleyans have two important seminaries in Yorkshire, the one at Woodhouse Grove, near Shipley, for the sons of ministers only, the other called Wesley College, at Sheffield, designed for the education of the richer members of the communion. The former is almost a private institution, under the special care of the Wesleyan Conference. Relatively to the ages of the boys, the standard of scholarship attained in language, mathematics, and general knowledge is exceptionally high. This is probably due to the fact that by the regulations of the institution all the boys are admitted at the age of nine, and are expected to remain for a fixed term of six years. Scholarships, which are open to competition, may enable a promising scholar to remain without further payment, until the age of 17; but otherwise the term of residence is the same for all. Hence the plans of the teachers are more uniform, and are less susceptible of interruption from the caprice of parents than in any other school in the district. Wesley College, Sheffield, erected by subscription, at a cost of 27,000*l.*, is a splendid building, in which I found 193 scholars, of whom 30 only are day pupils.* The average duration of a pupil's residence in the school is considerably less than at Woodhouse Grove, but the instruction is as high and is often prolonged to a later age. In both institutions the most elaborate provision has been made for health, instruction, and relaxation. In both a liberal education is given, and both have attained high distinctions in the University of London.

* A communication from the Rev. J. H. James, the governor, which is printed in the Appendix, will be found to furnish useful hints on one or two important sanitary problems, and also incidentally to show the liberality of the governing body of this institution, and their careful solicitude for the health and comfort of the pupils.

A new College, at Elmfield, near York, has recently been opened under most hopeful auspices, by the Primitive Methodists. This body, which is an offshoot from the Wesleyans, has hitherto done little or nothing for the promotion of higher education; but since in this district it is increasing in wealth and in numbers, a natural anxiety has arisen among its richer members to provide for their sons a liberal training without sending them beyond the reach of those religious influences to which they attach the greatest value. Nearly 5,000*l.* have been expended in the purchase and adaptation of a suitable building and ground. Advantage has been taken of the experience of the older religious body, and the general outline of the scheme has been copied from that of Wesley College. There is an excellent master, whose experience was mainly gained in that institution; and my examination of the pupils impressed me strongly with the belief that the school is destined to take a high rank among the denominational institutions of the district. The Primitive Methodist College.

All these institutions are the offspring of religious zeal. Their design is to give useful and economical education, but to give it under moral safeguards, and in such a way as to retain the young people within the fold of the religious communion of their fathers. The credit of the several religious bodies is more or less pledged to the maintenance of the institutions in efficiency, and each school has been placed under the care of selected teachers, who are well known in the denomination and possess its confidence. I have to acknowledge the extreme readiness and courtesy with which all the facts relating to these institutions were placed at my disposal, and the cordiality with which I was welcomed on my visit of examination. On three points the experience I gained from these schools was especially instructive to me;—the economy and distribution of the teaching power, the curriculum of instruction, and the cost of maintenance. But it is right to add that all of these institutions are of an exceptional and semi-private character; that they are virtually inaccessible, save to children of a particular class, and that, except in the three particulars just named, the experience they furnish affords little help towards the solution of the general problem of public education. General character of these denominational schools.

The moral discipline in these schools has exercised considerable influence on their organization. There is in each of them a head master, usually a graduate, who takes the entire responsibility of the school teaching. But above him there is, generally, a governor or superintendent, who takes the oversight of the establishment as a whole. In the Wesleyan and Primitive Methodist schools this arrangement seems always to prevail, and it exists in a modified degree in the institutions of the Friends and the Moravians. The governor is generally a minister of mature years, chosen rather for the weight of his moral influence than for his scholarship. Yet he is supreme over the school as well as over the household, and appeals may be made to him from the plans and decisions of the head master. I am bound to say that this arrangement works better than might have been expected: but Their organization.

cases sometimes arise in which it seriously hampers the course of instruction, and diminishes the legitimate authority of the teachers. My observations of the working of this plan have not encouraged me to feel hopeful as to its more general adoption in schools of another kind. Even in those institutions which from their peculiar constitution afford the most favourable field for the experiment, I am inclined to think that an arrangement which would identify the two offices of governor and head master is worth striving after. It is not good for learners to see anyone overruling their head master, or to associate the idea of moral supervision with that of intellectual inferiority.

As to the distribution of the teaching power there is no uniform plan in schools of this class. At Ackworth each class performs the whole of its work in a separate room and under one teacher. The organization is that of a number of independent schools called classes. It was admitted to me that this was probably not the way in which the school could best avail itself of any special gifts which a teacher might possess; and that another distribution of teaching power would possibly produce a more rapid improvement. But by way of compensation it was urged that the moral influence exerted by the teacher was greater; that he thus became more responsible for the general progress of his pupils, and was brought into a closer and more affectionate relation to them. There is an opposite plan which probably secures the maximum rate of intellectual progress;—that of making each master the teacher of a special subject, and allowing the boys to visit all the teachers in succession for lessons on particular subjects. There is apt to be a want of proportion or wholeness in the training of a boy on this system. Each teacher pulls at him in a different direction, and concerns himself with one branch only of his attainments. Moreover, the mental effect on the teacher of looking exclusively at one subject is narrowing and enervating.* On the whole a compromise between the two methods seems to work best,—one, which while allowing the classes to have their own masters for general work, affords to each teacher the opportunity of giving to the highest classes lessons on the one subject which he knows best. This plan

* The opinion of Dr. Henderson, the head master of Leeds Grammar School is, however, more favourable to the system of teaching special subjects. He says, "I have "a very strong opinion against the class-master system, except in very large schools, "*i.e.*, exceeding 200, where it is unavoidable. The plan which I have found by far "the most successful, is to have masters for subjects and to send boys to different "masters. In Jersey we had a fourfold classification in the school. General work was "subdivided into classical and English and mathematics. French and German boys "were sent in divisions, each division consisting of boys of nearly the same strength "as in ordinary classification. The particular advantage was seen in their general "studies, in which no class went invariably to the same master. It was thus possible "to neutralize a less efficient master, and by hearing the previous lessons always "repeated, to be certain that the work was at one time or another sure to be received. "Having also, a very good assistant classical master, who also undertook the compo- "sition, I was enabled to leave to him a full share of the classical working of the "sixth, and so to take every class in the school, with rare exceptions, at least once a "week in an ordinary lesson which, if desirable, I made repetition work. I found by "this means that I had far more of the boys than is possible by periodical examina- "tions. Notwithstanding this opinion, however, I have not thought it advisable "to supersede by it the class-master system which I found existing in this school; "as I have no doubt there would be a strong feeling against it on the part of the "parents and masters from the long establishment of the other system."

is pursued at Wesley College, where the masters in higher departments take charge of subjects, but those in the lower are confined to classes. At Fulneck the class-master system is the rule, but exceptions are freely made, and each master is encouraged to evince special as well as general power, and to turn it to account for the good of the school.

The curriculum of instruction in all these schools differs in one important respect from that of the ordinary grammar school. English grammar and composition, geography, history, and physical science receive much attention. "Fancy classics," as they are sometimes called, are discarded. The classical instruction is not carried to the point of verse-making, nor the mathematical beyond Euclid, trigonometry, and the higher algebra. Classics and mathematics furnish the groundwork of the mental training, but are turned earlier to account as instruments of general culture. Since the upper boys are frequently destined for the University of London, the matriculation examination of that university furnishes the scheme of instruction. At Wesley College I heard a "university class" reading the subjects for the ensuing matriculation examination. The Oxford and Cambridge middle-class examinations have been used occasionally by Fulneck, and once by Woodhouse Grove: but the authorities of the latter institution, as well as of the Friends School at York, and of Wesley College, greatly prefer the London Matriculation examination for those who do not propose to graduate, but who will leave school at 17. The curriculum of instruction.

Since schools of this kind have been established for other purposes than the making of profits, the expense of education in them is in all cases small relatively to the advantages which are enjoyed. The largeness of the scale on which the establishments are founded, and the fact that they are all nearly full also help to keep down the average cost per head. I have already quoted the statistics of those two schools* which being partly maintained out of corporate funds are carried on at the smallest cost. At Ackworth the small sums paid by the parents have to be supplemented by voluntary subscriptions from richer Friends, and the total cost per head of food, clothing, and instruction is 25*l.* Woodhouse Grove is maintained out of connexional funds at an average cost per head for boarding and instruction of 28*l.* In all the other schools the parents pay sums which suffice to cover the whole cost. The two great schools belonging to the Society of Friends at York are intended for the children of gentlemen, and are managed on a liberal scale. In the boy's school at Bootham charge for board and instruction is 40*l.*, 45*l.*, or 50*l.* per annum according to age; and the total account including all extras, incidental expenses, and repair of clothing, averages less than 60*l.* In the Friends' Girls' School the charge for board and instruction is less, and the extras are fewer in number; here the average annual bill amounts to 47*l.* 11*s.* 2*d.* Economy of management.

The Wesley College, Sheffield, draws its scholars from the upper ranks of Methodist society, yet the average annual bill paid by

* Ante, p. 193.

parents inclusive of all charges is 61*l.* 5*s.* 8*d.** At Fulneck the charges are still lower. Board and instruction both for boys and girls are rated at 32*l.* to 35*l.* per annum, according to age, and the highest bill hardly reaches 50*l.* The Primitive Methodist school at Elmfield is too new to be confident in its calculations, but its fees for board and tuition have been fixed after a careful estimate at 35*l.*, and the directors are very confident that for this sum the school will continue self-supporting and very efficient.

To these calculations it should be added that the staff of teachers in the schools I have thus grouped together is very large, averaging one for every 14 pupils; that in nearly all each scholar has a separate bed; and that in regard to secondary advantages, such as cricket-fields, swimming baths, gymnasia, work-shops, reading-rooms, libraries, &c., several of them, especially Ackworth, Wesley College, Woodhouse Grove, and Bootham, possess a completeness of equipment which almost amounts to luxury.

Not necessarily imitable by non-sectarian institutions.

Nevertheless it must not be supposed that the economics of these institutions furnish a fair criterion of what may be done in other schools. With one exception, each of them is housed in a fine building erected or specially adapted for its purpose at considerable cost. The large capital represented by the freehold of these buildings and by what may be called the plant of the schools has been freely contributed by the founders and constitutes an endowment of the most valuable kind. No interest on this capital is paid or expected. Further, the staff of teachers though ample and highly efficient cannot be said to be well remunerated. Relatively to the qualifications they possess and to the work they do the teachers in these denominational schools are all underpaid. But this arises from the fact that they *are* denominational. Pious and devoted men are ready, partly from motives of loyalty to their own religious communion, and partly because they find it pleasanter to work with colleagues who are all of the same mind, to accept posts of this kind for a smaller remuneration than their services would command elsewhere. And this is not only true of institutions which are mainly designed as shelters for the children of one sect; it is equally true of all sectional institutions, which appeal to the sympathy of a class, or promise to serve as a

* The following are copies of bills of lads of 16:—

Wesley College.

	£	*s.*	*d.*
Board, education, washing, and medical attendance	45	13	6
Reading-room subscription	0	8	8
Copybooks	0	6	0
Writing-paper	0	5	0
Drawing	5	5	0
Music	4	4	0
Cricket club	0	5	0
Drilling	0	10	6
Botanical Garden ticket	0	4	0
Use of piano	0	15	0
Seat-rent in chapel	0	9	0
Books	3	0	0
	£61	5	8

Friends' School, York.

	£	*s.*	*d.*
One year's board and instruction	45	0	0
Latin, French, Greek, and German	8	0	0
Books used in these languages	1	5	10
Stationery 2*s.* 10*d.*, bath 6*s.* 8*d.*	0	9	6
	£54	15	4

propaganda for particular religious tenets. It is because they are sectional that they are established and maintained on a more economical footing than other schools. For they much more easily obtain subscriptions to start them;* and when started they are more likely to enlist the services of zealous men who are willing to work with a missionary spirit and for less than the market price.

Public schools for the lower middle class.

This seems a fitting place in which to cite the examples of a class of schools, which are neither endowed nor private, yet which hardly deserve the name of proprietary. I mean those which having been originally designed as elementary schools have by their own excellence attracted children of a superior class and have become in some degree self-supporting intermediate schools. Among them the schools attached to the Mechanics' Institute in Leeds occupy a prominent place. They were designed originally to furnish primary instruction to the children of the members. But, as is well known, the name "Mechanics" does not fairly represent the social position of the persons who avail themselves of such institutions. It is not men of the labouring class, but the more intelligent shopmen, clerks, warehousemen, and travellers of a great town like Leeds, who compose the Mechanics' Institute. And it is for the children of this class that the committee have made ample provision in their day schools. In the boys' school I found 150 scholars under four highly trained masters, of whom the first also possessed a university degree. Here were all the characteristics of a superior British School, united with the home lessons, written exercises, and advanced studies which are proper for the middle-class day school. The order was admirable, the attainments in history, English grammar, and mathematics, unusually sound. Latin and French were taught in the upper classes; while the amount of mental activity and interest in learning displayed in all the classes was such as to evince both skill and enthusiasm on the part of the teachers. The girls' school, in which there are 140 scholars, possesses similar merits. It is under the care of teachers who have been specially trained for their work, and it displays a high average of general intelligence. Both schools derive much of their life from their association with the Mechanics' Institute, and avail themselves largely of the Society of Arts examinations, the facilities for art education, and other advantages enjoyed by that institution. The fees vary from 12*s.* to 25*s.* per quarter in the boys' school, and from 17*s.* to 34*s.* in the girls' school; and these sums though far less than are charged for teaching of similar quality in private schools, suffice to enable the committee to pay adequate salaries to trained teachers of the highest professional qualifications. The

Mechanics' Institute, Leeds.

* With the single exception of a recent munificent effort in the City of London, there has of late been little or no enthusiasm for the promotion of education *per se*. People do not care about it. If they make sacrifices it is for religious education, because they hope to promote the spread of their own religious opinions. I have noticed this, especially in elementary schools. The old enthusiasm for education, which led men of different sects to join together, for the establishment of British schools seems to be dying out. There are few or no new British schools now. All the educational activity of our time seems to be sectarian.

schools make no claim upon the resources of the institute.* The committee provide suitable buildings and attentive superintendence, but otherwise the schools are self-supporting.

Upper departments of good elementary schools.

In many of the good schools under inspection and in receipt of aid from the Parliamentary grant, I find an increasing number of children belonging to a class above that for which the schools were intended. The small shopkeepers, clerks, and superior workmen find out that the education given in a good National school is better suited to their needs than that which is to be purchased in small private academies. And in the best of the National, British, and Wesleyan Schools in the great towns, there are many children of this class for whom the managers are not permitted to claim any grant from Government,† and who are therefore required to pay a sum sufficient to cover the cost of their education. Thus in the Hope Street British School in York, in St. George's National School in Leeds, in the Doncaster British School, and in the Wesleyan School in Hull, the reputation of the teaching has become so high that the committees have become almost embarrassed by applications for admission from parents of a higher rank. It would not be difficult to fill schools of this kind with scholars well able to pay the full cost of their instruction; and but for a commendable wish to keep the schools available for the poor for whom they were built; managers could save themselves all anxiety, by the

* The fees in the boys' school amounted in 1865 to 532*l.* and the salaries to 502*l.* In the Ladies' Educational Institute, the fees were above 600*l.* and amply covered the expenses. In the new Mechanics' Institute now in course of erection on a large scale in Leeds, ample schoolroom accommodation is to be provided for increased numbers, viz., 300 boys and 200 girls.

† The Committee of Council make the most careful arrangements to prevent the alienation of any portion of the grant to children not of the labouring class. The name of every child on whose behalf a grant is claimed, must be entered in a schedule, and the occupation of every parent who does not gain his livelihood by manual labour, must also be specified. Subject to a certain discretion which the managers and inspector may use in special cases, all names so distinguished are struck out of the list before the grant is computed. The spirit in which the rule is enforced may be gathered from the following official regulations:—

"Rule 10. Entries in Column VI. have reference to Article 4 in the Revised Code,[1] and do not exclude children from the grant whose parents, though not supporting themselves by manual labour, yet are of the same means and social level as those who do so, such as shopkeepers, who have only petty stocks, and employ no one but members of their own family."

"Cases of doubt are to be determined, according to the answers to one, or more, of the following inquiries:—

a. Does A. B. work for himself or for a master? if for himself, does he employ apprentices or journeymen? This will apply to masons, carpenters, tailors, blacksmiths, mariners, fishermen, &c.

The class denoted by Article 4, supports itself by its own manual labour only, and not by profit on the labour of others.

b. Would it be unreasonabte to expect him to pay 9*d.* per week, for the schooling Commissioners Report, p. 345) of elementary instruction in a day school.

c. Does he rank and associate with the working men or tradesmen of the place?

"Simple policemen, coastguards, and dock and railway porters, may commonly be regarded as labouring men. But petty officers in those services, excisemen, pilots, and clerks of various kinds present more difficulty, and must be judged of according to the answers of the preceding inquiries."

"Every occupation which does not fall within *the letter* of Article 4 should be entered in Column V, but a well-marked line should be drawn under those entries which are thought to fall within the spirit of Article 4."

[1] "The object of the grant is to promote the education of children belonging to the classes who support themselves by manual labour."

simple expedient of leaving the teachers to make their own charges; unaided either by subscriptions or by the Government grant. Cases of this kind are daily multiplying. In several instances the managers have met the difficulty by attaching to the National school a higher department. A very successful effort of this kind has been made at the York Training College, where the presence of a principal and a large staff of qualified teachers offers unusual facility for the experiment. Besides a National School of the usual type which is attached to the institution as a practising ground for the students, a model school has also been established.* In this there are about 100 boys who pay fees graduated according to their classes, from 5*s.* to 10*s.* per quarter, and who receive superior instruction. Of the 95 present on the day of my visit, I found that 10 were the sons of clerks, 4 of farmers, and 23 of respectable shopkeepers: the remaining 43 belonged to the class for whom the Government grant would have been claimable. Yet since all the parents paid the higher fees, the school, though provided with pupil teachers and annually visited by H. M. Inspector, was not in a position to claim any portion of the Government grant.

York model school.

The managers of the Leeds Parish school have also engaged a master with a high certificate to take the exclusive charge of an upper department composed of children for whom the Government grant cannot be claimed. The boys in this school pay 12*s.* per quarter, and their average age is two years higher than that of the boys in the National School. Many of them come up from the other department, and regard this as a finishing school. Euclid and algebra are taught; and through the kindness of the Rev. Canon Atlay the vicar, who watches over the schools with great interest, one of his curates attends regularly to give lessons in Latin to the upper boys.

Leeds parish school.

Nearly akin to these efforts are those which have been made by the Congregational Board of Education. This is the only educational body in England which does not accept the aid of the Committee of Council. When in 1846 the National Society, the British and Foreign School Society, the Wesleyans, and the Roman Catholic Poor School Committee accepted the terms under which the Government proposed to make grants to schools, one section of Protestant Dissenters, consisting chiefly of Independents and Baptists, seceded from the British and Foreign School Society, and has ever since remained hostile to the principle of State aid in education. For a time the Voluntary School Society sustained

The Congregational or voluntary schools.

* The Rev. G. Rowe the Principal of the York Training College informs me, that the original object of this school was to set before the students the best system of organization and teaching in a school such as they might expect to have. The raising of fees and of the scale of instruction above those of the practising school was an afterthought, suggested to the authorities by their own success. He adds, "No necessary "has been spared; the masters are fairly remunerated and the earnings of the school "have covered the whole of its cost and upkeep. At its commencement this was "almost more than was anticipated, but the experiment has shown that among town "populations like that of York; there exist the elements of a self-supporting school "for the class which borders on and interlocks with that aided by the government in "more strictly elementary schools."

two training institutions for teachers. But these were soon abandoned, and the only Normal school now in existence which does not receive aid from Government is that of the Congregational Board of Education at Homerton, near London. A small number of teachers is annually sent forth from this institution, to schools which have been set on foot by Independent congregations. These schools are technically known as "training schools," but are more generally called "voluntary schools," and are often quoted as illustrations of what the voluntary principle has effected for public education.

Since the feeling which induced Nonconformists to decline all relationship with Government was especially strong in the West Riding of Yorkshire, this district is probably better supplied than others with schools of the voluntary class. I find, however, that they are very few in number, and that they do not, as a rule, come into competition with the aided schools for the poor. The most important representative of the class in this district is the Beeston Hill Training School, in Leeds. This consists of two parts. In one were 130 scholars, under the care of one master and two assistants, of whom one was a young woman who had the charge of the infant class. In the other were 100 girls, superintended by a mistress, with an assistant. The principal teachers had been trained at Homerton, and the assistants were intending to proceed to that institution; they were not, however, receiving any special preparation with that view, either in the form of systematic daily instruction or progressive annual examination, such as pupil teachers are subject to in an inspected school. The master and mistress receive the whole income from the pupils, and pay their own assistants, besides a small rent for the use of the room. The charges for instruction are the same in both schools, and the teachers issue prospectuses stating their terms. It will be sufficient to quote that of the master:—

"The course of instruction is as follows:—

"Lower division.—Reading, writing, arithmetic, spelling, dictation, English grammar, English and Scripture history, geography, lessons on objects, &c. Drawing in this division, extra.

"Upper division.—A more extended course of the above subjects, together with drawing (freehand, mechanical, &c.); Euclid, mensuration, algebra, book-keeping, mapping, vocal music, elements of Latin, &c.

"Terms.—Lower division, 6*s.* and 7*s.* 6*d.* per quarter, or 6*d.* and 8*d.* per week; upper division, 12*s.* and 15*s.* per quarter, or 1*s.* and 1*s.* 3*d.* per week. French, German, &c., extra. Pupils of this class can be prepared for the middle-class examinations if desired.

"*In entering on the sixth year of his labours, Mr.* ——— *would return his best thanks for the public favour already accorded to him, as shown in the eight-fold increase in the number of scholars, and would express the hope that, by continued exertions, he will merit still further patronage and support.*"

This is, therefore, essentially a private adventure school, and succeeds so well on that footing, that the master, who is an energetic teacher, obtains a clear income, after paying all expenses, of 170*l.* per annum. His position is that of a tenant, in a room which was erected as a Sunday school, and which, having been fitted up for that purpose, is ill adapted as a day school.

Since the committee contribute nothing to its support, but receive 10*l.* rent from the master, they are hardly in a position to exercise control. Practically he is left to carry out his own plans, without the inconvenience of inspection or supervision, and with no responsibility except to the parents.

The school is a fair type of others which have been established in this district as "voluntary schools." The name is not inappropriate, inasmuch as the master volunteers to take upon himself a certain pecuniary risk, and the parents voluntarily pay what he charges. But they are not examples of voluntary effort on the part of the rich to provide education for the poor. They call for no sacrifices, and for little or no watchfulness from those who start them. Even the schoolrooms have seldom been built for the purpose, but are originally designed as appendages to a chapel, and are merely permitted to be used during the week for a subordinate purpose. Now, when the promoters of a school accept the Government grant, they not only pledge themselves to open it on terms which the poor can pay, but they always meet that grant by a certain proportion of annual voluntary subscriptions. It seems that the repudiation of the grant has done little to stimulate voluntary efforts; since in the schools which publicly claim the credit of dispensing with it, subscriptions are seldom needed. These schools are undoubtedly useful institutions. They supply a real want; for they offer to the small tradesman, and the respectable artizan, a cheap and useful education, respectable methods, and trained instructors. But they are essentially middle class, self-sustaining, and semi-private schools, and are not accessible to the children of the poor.

These schools really middle class, and private adventure schools.

On the whole it is clear that in the lower stratum of the middle class there is a great demand for the sort of good primary education which trained teachers can give. At present that demand is very inadequately met. Except in the case of the Mechanics' Institute, and the Congregational Board, no one initiates schools expressly for this class. The promoters of National and British schools, sometimes, as we have seen, make a provision for a necessity which is forced upon them as a consequence of their own unexpected success. But they never contemplate it at first, and the arrangements of the Government do not encourage them to do so. For it is the duty of the Educational Department to concern itself wholly with the instruction of the poor. If other children come into the schools, the Government cannot prevent it, but it is bound to consider them as intruders, and to guard the Parliamentary grant from being in any way diverted to their benefit. Even the advantage of inspection and examination is often necessarily withheld from them. For it is the chief business of an inspector to verify the fulfilment of conditions under which a certain sum of public money is to be paid; and although, for the general good of the school, he commonly examines all the children, yet, if time presses, he is not unnaturally led to disregard those scholars whose failure or success would not affect the substantial part of his report.

Demand of the lower middle class for good primary education.

And for help and guidance, though not for money.

Some means are clearly wanting for providing primary schools under trained masters and mistresses for the children just above the rank of those for whom the National schools were intended. Nothing more would be needed than the provision of a good schoolroom, and some governing authority with power enough to choose a master, to dismiss him if he proved incompetent, and to enforce annual inspection. Once started, the school would be well sustained by the fees; therefore no subsidy would be required either from subscribers or the Government grant. The great anomaly of the present system is that, unless people happen to require pecuniary aid for education, they receive no help of any kind. Committees and public bodies give supervision, because they give money; and the Government offers inspection and guidance only as the necessary condition of the acceptance of a grant. And the independent shopkeeper or mechanic, who *does not* want money, but who *does* want guidance, is obliged to dispense with both.* Is it too much for him to ask for some relaxation of the existing system in his favour? May he not say with some hope to the Government, and to the rich people who are interested in education, "My children need instruction as well as "the poor. I want for them schools properly organized and "animated by a public spirit. I wish to avail myself, for them, "of the experience which has been accumulated, with your help, "in primary schools. I can afford to pay a schoolmaster but I "do not know how to choose him, nor to bargain with him, nor to "assure myself that he is doing the best work. You know better "than I do what a good school is like. Can you not provide "publicity, qualified teachers, a high standard and proper tests— "all in short which you are now willing to give to the poor *with* "your money—and let me have them without it?"

The Privy Council system ought to be elastic enough to meet this demand.

I have reason to know that in more than one of the large towns of Yorkshire good intermediate schools would be founded at once, if their promoters were not afraid of their sinking to the level of private adventure schools. From many of the respectable persons who act as managers of the schools under inspection I have repeatedly heard the complaint that they are unable to obtain for their own sons education of as good a quality as that which is

* A striking illustration of this statement has just come under my notice. On returning to my usual duties as inspector, I find that among other schools added to my list in the interval, there is one of the largest in the West Riding, which has hitherto been uninspected. The managers are rich and generous manufacturers, who have long maintained schools at their own expense, and without any aid from the Government. They applied to the Education office for inspection, expressly stating, however, that they did not require a grant. In reply they were informed that if their school was merely placed upon the inspector's supplemental list, his visits would be friendly and occasional only, and might be intermitted altogether if his time were wholly occupied with "annual grant" schools. So in order to entitle themselves to an annual and searching inspection and to place their teaching staff under regular examination, the managers revised their application and asked for a grant. The result of my first visit was the award of a considerable sum, but this sum the managers expressly told me they did not want, and would rather not have received. The humiliation of accepting it was the price they paid for the inspection.

accessible to the poor. Sometimes they have told me that they would like to start an upper school, on a self-supporting plan, under a good trained master, for the children of the trading class. But such persons, though they would willingly charge themselves with pecuniary responsibility, do not wish to hamper themselves with the care of a merely private undertaking. It is indispensable for them to have public recognition and annual inspection, and in the present state of the law these are not to be had. If such aid were once offered, a great hindrance to educational enterprise would be removed.

Example of the difficulties arising under the present system.

Since the conclusion of my engagement with your Commission I have had occasion to inspect for the Privy Council one of the largest and most flourishing British schools in the county. I learned incidentally, before leaving, that the master received 10 boarders into his house, and that there were 15 others on the footing of private pupils, who paid fees amounting to three or four times the sum usually charged. It appeared, however, that these scholars had been sent away for a holiday on the day of inspection; and that their names were not on the registers, since no grant could be claimed for them. It of course became necessary that I should obtain a distinct statement from the managers, showing why and how long they had sanctioned this unusual arrangement, and what precautions they had taken to prevent the withdrawal of the master's time and attention from the children for whom the school was built, and for whom the Parliamentary grant was intended. This statement was transmitted to the heads of the educational department, and the committee of the school was duly warned of the danger which they incurred of forfeiting the grant altogether.

But the incident was significant, and was a fair sample of the difficulties which are multiplying in this district. From my point of view, as an inspector of elementary schools, it was incumbent upon me to complain of this arrangement, and to report to the Council Office that the managers and the master had been guilty of a violation of the rules, if not of a breach of faith.* But from the point of view which I had learned to take for your Commission I could not help seeing that the arrangement had its advantages—that it furnished a useful and economical education to a class of children who greatly needed it; that it added to the emoluments of a meritorious teacher; and that it indirectly raised the tone of manners and behaviour in the whole school. Nothing could have been more satisfactory than the state of the elementary instruction down to the lowest classes; and the pressure of children of a higher social rank into the school was a very legitimate result of the excellent teaching and the remarkable intellectual vigour which pervaded it. Yet, under existing rules, the experiment was

* In the managers' schedule it is specified that "the highest class should be "accessible for a fee fairly within the means of a common labouring man in the "neighbourhood."

scarcely justifiable, and the consciousness of this betrayed both managers and teacher into shyness and reticence, to say the least, on the day of my visit. It is clear to me that for the future all such experiments should either be peremptorily forbidden or should receive official recognition on certain well-defined conditions. And in view of the fact that good schools of this kind are able to confer a great boon upon the children of the lower middle class, I confess I should prefer the latter alternative, if it can be adopted without diminishing the efficiency of the schools for their present purpose. Some of the conditions required are not difficult to specify; others might probably become necessary, but these at least would be imperative:—

Suggested plan for dealing with such cases.

(1.) The school in which an upper department or class is allowed should be in every case certified by the inspector as one in which the elementary work was done with more than average success.

(2.) The differences in the fees paid should be the subject of arrangement between the managers and the parents, but they should not be graduate d according to the subjects of instruction or produce visible distinctions of any kind between the children in the work of the school. Thus, although higher fees might as a rule be paid for all in the advanced class, a system of promotion by merit should be devised, whereby children qualified to enter it might be admitted without the payment of a higher fee.

(3.) No grant should be claimable by managers in respect of any child whose parents paid 9*d.* per week.

(4.) Every child admitted into the school, on whatever terms should be entered in the register, and should be included in the computation for average attendance, which determines the number of the teaching staff.

(5.) Every scholar who has attended the school for the minimum number of days (100) should be presented to the inspector for examination, whether a grant can be claimed for him or not. This is most important. Nothing is more mischievous in its influence on the children than the withdrawal of certain scholars on the day of the examination, on the ground that they are not eligible, and that the school can "earn" no money by them. If permitted, the effect of this practice will be to make a boy's presence at the examination, which ought to be a privilege, a sign of social inferiority. Whatever doubt may exist as to the propriety of admitting scholars who pay the full cost of their education, it is certain that, if admitted, they should be subject to the same examination as the rest.

Such conditions as these could easily be fulfilled by all the schools in which the difficulty is likely to arise. And as a measure of compromise, until good secondary schools shall have been established in sufficient numbers, an extension of the sympathies of the Privy Council in this direction may not unreasonably be anticipated.

There is a strong impression on the part of many in this district that some of the less useful endowments might with advantage be capitalized, so that instead of producing a meagre annual income, they might provide once for all the well-adapted and furnished building which experience has proved to be the best, and even the sufficient endowment for a day school of this kind. Others would like to supplement trust money by public subscriptions, and to re-establish some of the endowed schools on a partially proprietary basis. I am unable to speak with any confidence as to the value of either of these suggestions.* The latter appears to me to imply a grave difficulty. How to reconcile the claims of the proprietary body with the claims of the trustees, and how a board of management could be permanently constituted so as to do justice to both, are problems which would need delicate handling. But since no experiment of the kind has ever been tried here, it is impossible for me to offer any trustworthy opinion as to the practicability of such a scheme.

The union of endowments with proprietary schools.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.—BOYS.

It is unfortunate that at the commencement of this inquiry all the extant directories of Yorkshire were faulty or of old date, and no general scholastic directory exists of later date than 1861. From them I selected a list of more than 100 boys' schools, which after examining advertisements in the local papers at Midsummer, and making some private inquiries, I afterwards increased to 147. I placed myself in communication with the heads of all these schools, and furnished each of them with your forms of inquiry, and with an explanatory letter. In reply I received 74 returns, generally accompanied with an invitation to visit. From seven I received invitations, and more or less of oral assistance, but no forms: from seventeen letters of explanation, generally pointing out that the school was either very small, very new, or otherwise unable to furnish trustworthy statistics: from four absolute refusals to reply; 14 of the schools had ceased to exist, while from the remaining 31 no replies were received. I have no means of knowing in how many of these 31 cases the schools are in a condition to furnish information. But assuming them all to be in existence, the general result is that out of 116 private boys' schools, 81 evinced a readiness to afford assistance in your Inquiry. Considering that, *primâ facie*, there were some not unnatural reasons for a misunderstanding of the real object of the Com-

Private schools.—Boys.

* The founders of the new Proprietary College at Hull were very anxious to absorb the old grammar school, which possesses a small endowment, into that institution. They proposed to sell the present buildings, which are in a spot crowded and inconvenient for a school, but of considerable value; to unite the resources of the two establishments, reserving to the scholars of the grammar school all the rights which they now possess, and to place the grammar school trustees on the governing body of the new institution; and to give them a preferential mortgage on its property, so as to secure the trust funds in case of its failure. In this way they hoped *inter alia* to secure an exhibition which belongs to the grammar school, and which is now lost to the town. But the charity trustees declined to accede to the proposal, and preferred to sustain the grammar school on its present unsatisfactory footing.

mission, I think this result is very honourable to the profession, and indicates, at least, that there is no unwillingness on the part of its members to welcome inquiry and to place their experience at the public service.

The number of pupils in the 81 schools is 3,979. The number of schools to which I paid personal visits is 44. In many cases I examined the entire school, in others the upper classes only. In all I had the opportunity of looking over the premises, and of obtaining the testimony and opinion of the master on matters of professional interest. And I wish to express thus publicly my sense of the great courtesy and frankness with which I was generally welcomed, and my regret that I was unable, owing to the pressure of duties, to avail myself of many invitations which were urged upon me in terms of special kindness, and which I had conditionally promised to accept.

Many of them, after all, inaccessible.

On the other hand it must be owned that at least half of the 74 returns are very incompletely filled, and that they often withhold exactly the information which, for public purposes, I most desired to obtain.* There were many schools which I knew from common repute as good specimens of a class on which it would be useful to report; but to which I could not obtain access. I called at several of them, and found that your proceedings were regarded as objects of great suspicion. One gentleman, who had lately been much heated in an election contest, and had been on the losing side, told me he believed that the whole thing was a Whig job, and that the application had been made to him through the indirect influence of a political opponent who wished to irritate him. Another not only declined to give any particulars as to the state of his school, but even to tell the numbers; for to do so would be, he said, to let you know his profits. Another had recently read a speech of the late Chancellor of the Exchequer, in which that statesman had addressed the pupils of the Liverpool Institute, and spoken favourably of the constitution of schools on a similar basis; he wrote to me to say that he was convinced, from Mr. Gladstone's remarks, that the Government were meditating a great wrong, and that they desired to supersede private by public schools. More than one sought to exact from me a pledge that I was not unfavourable to the private school system, before they would give any information or consent to the examination of their schools. Indeed, I found among many of the private teachers a great apprehension of the effect of any measures which were likely to improve the grammar schools, or to facilitate the establishment of other public institutions. They told me that it was unfair for schools in which the capital was not furnished by the teachers to come into competition with the "regular profession," and undersell its members. In Leeds, especially, it was urged upon me as a cruel personal grievance, that the Mechanic's Institute had cheapened the education of the lower middle class,

* In the Appendix will be found *in extenso* the returns from 12 selected schools.

and had drawn away a large number of the scholars from the humbler "academies" and "seminaries." The feeling that the private adventure school is in legitimate possession of the market, and that all public movements for education are intrusive and unjust, has sometimes been defended to me on economic grounds; and I have been asked whether a Government workshop, or a benevolent society for the manufacture and sale of bread, would not be a great injustice to carpenters and bakers, and interfere with the fair operation of the law of supply and demand. It was, of course, not my duty to discuss these topics, but I could not fail to observe that the simple question whether the community were well or ill-educated under the present system did not appear to enter as an element into the argument.

Yet to one of my printed questions: "Do schools managed "by public or proprietary bodies possess any advantages over "private adventure schools?" the answer from persons outside of the profession is almost uniformly in the affirmative. They reply that public schools possess many advantages over private, *e.g.* "that they are more influenced by standard modes of educa- "tion, and by the sanction of the great seats of learning; that "they afford a better guarantee of good faith on the part of the "teachers, that they are less subject to interference from the "parents; that they can be examined by right, and not merely "by permission: and that as representing a greater number and "variety of interests they are less likely to run in a particular "groove, socially or educationally." But while this is admitted the facts remain, that private schools possess far more general confidence in this district than public; and that more than three-fourths of the boys of the middle class now under instruction are in private schools.* The reasons for this state of things deserve the serious consideration of the Commissioners.

The *raison d'être* of private schools.

Foremost among those reasons are two which have been given by anticipation, in this report;—the badness of the grammar schools and the paucity of good schools on a proprietary or other public basis. But other causes are also at work. Dissent prevails largely in the West Riding, and a considerable majority of the private schools are in the hands of Nonconformists. And there is a very general impression among parents that they can get what they want more readily, and that their wishes will receive more respectful attention in private than in public schools. To some extent this impression is true, although I have had as many complaints of injudicious interference on the part of parents in public as in private schools, and have witnessed almost as many examples in them of undue subserviency to the caprices of parents.†

* See the statistics given in appendix I. on the towns of York, Sheffield, Halifax, and Selby.

† Whether a schoolmaster spoils his school by the endeavour to meet the special fancies of each parent, or resolutely carries out the plan which he believes to be the best, depends upon the smallness of his numbers, and his own desire to get pupils, far more than on the status of the school in other respects. A prosperous private schoolmaster with a good name and a large school, can treat undue interference with more independence than the master of a small grammar school, who is advertising for boarders.

Much of the educational enterprise originates with private teachers.

But to this ought in fairness to be added that in this district almost all the educational enterprise of the last few years has originated with private teachers. I have shown that the efforts to establish proprietary schools have failed so signally that there has been no attempt to renew them; and the number of grammar schools which have put forth new signs of life within the last 20 years does not balance the number of those which in the same period have fallen into a state of inefficiency and decay. Hence a field has been opened for enterprise; and this district contains some signal examples of private persons who have cultivated it with skill and success. There are some establishments in Yorkshire on a large and costly scale, with the newest educational appliances, the most perfect drill-grounds and gymnasia, large cricket-fields and baths; and arrangements for health, comfort, and instruction which evince great administrative power, and require large capital and incessant supervision to keep them efficient. The principals of these schools are often men who have inherited their profession from their fathers, and who have sought to secure for their sons the highest attainable training for the successful prosecution of the undertaking. Among these gentlemen are some who evince an enthusiasm in the work of teaching, a knowledge of the best methods, and a wealth of educational expedients which are quite remarkable. They have made teaching the business of their lives, and have devoted to it enormous labour and thought. I have watched a man of this stamp through a long summer day, have seen him up at 6 o'clock, superintending the preparation of lessons, presiding at meals and at prayers, teaching in class for four or five hours, directing servants, giving orders to tradesmen, consulting the doctor, devising new plans for sanitary or other improvements, examining the classes of a youthful assistant; and giving an eye occasionally to some of the multifarious wants of farm, or school-house, or garden. I knew that he preached to the boys on the Sunday, that he kept up a careful correspondence with parents and with old scholars; and that he was liable at any hour of the day or night to have his leisure broken, or his temper aroused by some accident or breach of discipline. And I became aware, by many clear tokens, that heavily burdened as he was by the pecuniary charge of a great establishment, he was yet more sensible of the weight of his moral responsibility, and of the preciousness of the interests which had been confided to his care.

The business of education in this country can never afford to dispense with the agency of men like these. Yet their enthusiasm is the result of their independence. They have fashioned for themselves methods which are skilful and effective simply because they are original; and have voluntarily taken upon themselves an amount of watchfulness and of hard work which no governing body would have ventured to impose upon them. Had their schools not been essentially private, and the work exclusively their own, the public would not have gained so much from these men. But these

cases, in which high professional qualification and a love of teaching and a strong sense of duty are happily combined with a faculty for business, and with the command of money, are very rare. They serve to show what the principle of unrestricted competition in the education market may now and then achieve, but they are not fairly typical of the mass of private schools, and must not be taken as examples. The state of the private academies, though not wholly without hopeful features, is lamentably unsatisfactory.

Examples.

Before proceeding to give in general terms my conclusions respecting the condition of private schools, it may be well to reproduce from my note book the records of a small number of personal visits, as samples of the sort of data on which those conclusions have been formed :—

A. A large boarding school in the country, with 50 pupils, and four resident masters, besides the principal. The Head master, a graduate, an enthusiast in teaching, who has studied the best works on education and mental philosophy. His assistants, trained men whose classes work with intelligence and life. Attainments of boys not high, but real as far as they extend. About half are learning Latin, and two are reading Sallust. The curriculum of the upper classes is fashioned with a view to the university local examinations, in which the master has great faith. The highest class prepares for the senior and the next for the junior examination; the lower classes work with the same goal in view. All the elementary work excellent; about five boys can work easy questions in algebra, nine have commenced geometry. Master is especially interested in physical science, and has a good laboratory, largely filled with appliances and substances which he has personally prepared with the aid of the boys in leisure hours. Gives lectures on chemistry systematically, and a few of the boys conduct analysis with evident interest. The teaching generally is more professorial and less individual than in most private schools, but is carefully supplemented by written exercises and examinations.

The premises are large, and though economically are sufficiently furnished, and are perfectly clean and well ordered. Sleeping accommodation excellent, and rooms well ventilated. Dietary plain but abundant, and all the scholars look robust and cheerful. The master rents an extensive field pleasantly shaded by large elms; and there is abundant room for varied and healthy enjoyment without going beyond the bounds. The wife of the master takes an active share in the supervision of the house, and of a small farm annexed.

The weak point of the school is the great variety of separate charges; and the extent to which minute interference on the part of parents with all the details of diet, leisure, and instruction is practised. The master confesses that he could not resist this without the risk of losing pupils, and complains much of its effect on the work of the school, and on his personal influence. He is very hopeful about any measures which promise to draw more public attention to educational matters and to give parents sounder notions on the subject. Would welcome earnestly any official inspection, and is very anxious to receive suggestions for the improvement of his school. Has never desired to connect himself with the College of Preceptors, and does not look in that direction for any improvement.

B. A country boarding school, in which nominal terms range from 30*l.* to 45*l.* per annum; good house, built for the purpose, and adapted to receive 40 scholars. Only 24 now in residence. Master anxious and painstaking, but evidently burdened with the pecuniary care of the household, and with expenses, which with his resources are difficult to meet. One usher, about 19 years of age, teaches writing, and has charge of the lower class, but is very inefficient; five elder boys read Ovid tolerably, but have been ill drilled in grammar; seven are learning French, but not accurately. The arithmetic of the upper class fairly correct, as far as proportion. Three boys profess to have

read two books of Euclid, but no one could demonstrate prop. xx., book I. Writing somewhat slovenly; and reading, which is confined wholly to the New Testament, and to a compendium of history, very dull and unintelligent. Nearly all the work takes the form of saying lessons and doing exercises. There is little teaching. A general dulness pervades the school, and there are no signs of interest or zest on the part of the boys in any department of their work. Master evidently solicitous about his scholars' improvement, but unacquainted with the methods pursued in good schools; isolated and disheartened. Would gladly hear of any methods by which the race of assistant masters could be better qualified; but fears that his own means would not enable him to pay for the services of a man of that class.

C. A large day school, in the heart of a manufacturing town. Numerous day scholars, besides a small number of boarders who live with the master in the suburbs, and come into school every day. A good staff of seven assistant-masters, besides a drawing teacher who visits at short intervals. General order and attention of the boys very striking. The scholars arranged in nine groups, of which two are under the supervision of the head master, and are studying mathematics. The assistants are evidently trained men accustomed to handle classes. On inquiry I find that, with a single exception, every one has been a pupil teacher, or has received regular training, The Principal says that he always seeks such men, and values them highly. In four of the classes the boys passed an excellent examination in elementary subjects suitable to their age. In the highest, ten boys were preparing for the Cambridge local examination, with every prospect of success. The elements of French and German were well taught, and the highest pupils read a Latin author with correctness and appreciation. Special attention is given to mathematics, especially to the higher arithmetic and to geometry, in which the answers were very prompt and accurate. Great mental activity prevails throughout the school; and the master, though without any diploma, and untrained, except by the devotion of a long life and much enthusiasm to teaching, organizes and superintends all the details with great energy. His school is crowded with scholars, though in inconvenient premises, and without a playground. His success shows the readiness of persons of the shopkeeping class to avail themselves of a school in which good elementary teaching and the general discipline of a superior national school are to be had for about four or five guineas a year.

D. A small boarding school in a town; about one-half of the pupils are day scholars. The whole crowded into a long low room with double desks along the middle: two boys reading Latin, and seven or eight *translating* French, but unable to pronounce it or to answer grammatical questions. The master does not profess to teach French, but finds the parents urge it on him as a part of commercial education. A good deal of time is spent in the preparation of ciphering books, containing many flourishes and much business phraseology. But the best boys are puzzled by a very simple question in arithmetic which requires any thought to arrange or interpret. Reading very poor and inexpressive; scarcely any sensible answer can be elicited to questions on the meaning of ordinary words in the reading book. Spelling and grammar very moderate, the latter limited to the definitions of the parts of speech, and to certain rules of syntax which had been learned by heart, but not understood in their application to simple sentences. Drawing is paid for as an extra, but taught by the master. The specimens shown were little exercises in which rectilinear figures had been drawn with a ruler, and neatly shaded. The general knowledge and intelligence of the school are very low. The master attributes this partly to the fact that lads are sent to him in a very unprepared state and for short periods, and partly to the want of sympathy and help from the parents. He has one youthful assistant, who is wholly unqualified for more than the drudgery of elementary work and the correction of written exercises. The boarders are crowded into small rooms and do not have separate beds. One small lavatory suffices for 20 pupils. The assistant sleeps in a compartment of one of the rooms, but there is no window or other arrangement whereby he can overlook the rest.

E. A large school in a remote village, and consisting wholly of boarders. The premises have evidently undergone costly and recent improvements. Masters informs me that a large expense has been incurred in anticipation of my visit and in the hope of such a recommendation from the Commission as might prove a useful advertisement. Is concerned to hear my explanation that it is no part of our business to direct attention to particular establishments, but only to acquire accurate general impressions of the education given in schools of various classes. All external arrangements, however, are very skilful and complete. There is a music-room detached from the house, and provided with several pianos; a large lecture hall, with a stage for theatricals; a very complete chemical laboratory, and an immense gymnasium or covered barn, filled with swings, ropes, and many ingenious and novel devices for promoting physical exercise. Playground, lavatories, wardrobes, dining-hall, &c., orderly and complete: great labour, skill, and organizing power have evidently been bestowed on all the smaller details of domestic management. Food is excellent and abundant, and arrangements for physical comfort, not to say enjoyment, seem to have been specially devised to gratify the boys and their parents. Of the large staff of masters, each works in a separate room, and is charged with a particular subject. All are resident in the village, and devote their whole time to the school, no one being allowed to undertake other duty. They are, however, only employed during the hours of actual teaching; since the whole of the discipline in the playground, at meals, and in the dormitories, is under the care of a special staff. There are a drill serjeant and one or two order masters; besides night watchmen, who patrol the establishment every two or three hours, keep a register of the temperature, and report every case of misconduct, and even the name of any boy who coughs in the night. The master takes no personal share in the teaching, for which he says his own education has not fitted him; but he takes pains to get well-qualified men, and shows great zeal and acuteness in directing their work. A chaplain gives religious instruction, chiefly in the form of lectures rather than by books or tasks. A class is preparing for the Oxford local examination; about one-fourth of the school is learning Latin, but scarcely one-twentieth have advanced beyond the accidence. The prominent features of the instruction are English composition, to which a very skilful and experienced master devotes himself, arithmetic, history, letter writing, invoices, drawing, and those subjects which in the master's opinion are needed in mercantile and manufacturing life. There are special classes for book-keeping, for analytical chemistry, for architectural and engineering drawing. The boys intended to be engineers or manufacturers go down into the neighbouring mill to take measurements or to observe processes, and are made to record their observations in writing or by the help of elaborate drawings. It is a great object of the master to provide special training adapted to the particular employment which each boy is likely to pursue. The general level of intellectual instruction is necessarily lowered by this course; but an examination of the scholars revealed a very creditable amount of general knowledge, and showed that great attention had been given to elementary work. The instruction, although almost entirely limited to those subjects which parents are likely to appreciate, was on the whole useful and well planned. The most remarkable feature of the establishment is the discipline, which is evidently maintained by an elaborate system of *espionage*. There is a small pane of glass in the wall of every class-room, and the principal of the establishment pervades the passages at all hours, and sees what is going on in each room. This check, he said, he needed more for the masters than for the boys. A court is held once a week, over which the master presides, and in which all offences are tried by a jury consisting of 12 selected scholars. All punishments are awarded by this tribunal, and the master assures me that his chief function as judge is to mitigate the severity of the boys' own sentences. The assistant masters are excluded from the room, and complaints on the part of the boys against them are listened to in their absence. A sort of military organization prevails throughout the school; each boy on entering being placed in a particular company, and subject to a complete grade of commanding officers from lieutenant up to colonel. No boy is allowed

to pass one of the little officers of his own company even in the playground without a military salute; and no leave of absence can be obtained from the masters unless countersigned by his captain. The boys march to dinner to the sound of military music, each division being under the care of its own officers. Some of the prizes are awarded by the suffrages of the boys themselves, and the principal boy of the school was called the "Rex," and crowned with great ceremony by the master's daughter in the presence of the whole school and of visitors. With a view to give every boy an interest in the welfare of the establishment, the master has invented a great number of offices. There are the banker, the librarian, the doctor's amanuensis, the sanitary inspector, the mentor and master of the ceremonies, the gymnasium supervisor, orderlies, carvers, assistant carvers, a meteorologist, a postmaster, &c. The printed list of these functionaries included more than three-fourths of the whole number of scholars. A quarterly magazine is published in which are printed all the boys' themes and exercises, their musical compositions, facsimiles of their best drawings, and of the autographs of the best writers. In this magazine also are recorded, with great fulness and dignity of phrase, the treats, the special suppers, the cricket matches, the awards of prizes, and every little incident of school life. I cannot doubt that many of the ingenious devices employed in this school are honestly designed to cultivate manliness and self-reliance, and to prepare boys for the responsibilities of active life. But their influence for good seems to me to be altogether vitiated by the glare of publicity in which the boys live, and by the use which is constantly made, for advertising purposes, of their own names and doings. A system of this kind, if it secures the loyalty of the boys, is apt to do so at the expense of the comfort and dignity of the assistant masters; and it is difficult to believe that parents in any class of life, however flattered by it, could long be insensible to its injurious effect on their children, and to a certain priggishness and self-consciousness of manner which the habit of attaching inordinate importance to small matters is apt to generate.

F. A day school in the poorer part of a manufacturing town; a large dingy room used in the evening for lectures or preaching, but rented by the master of a "classical and commercial academy," whose announcement is painted on a board. The charges are 6*d.* to 1*s.* 6*d.* per week, and the children are gathered from the houses of the small tradesmen and the better paid workmen, who think the national school a little beneath them. Master a weak and ill-taught man, who has been in trade but has not succeeded. He says it is hard to get a living out of his school, and complains much of the rivalry of the British and other elementary schools in the neighbourhood. Issues a prospectus promising a complete commercial education; is careful to prefix "Master" and "Miss" to the names of his scholars and to write these titles with ornate flourishes on their ciphering and copy books. Otherwise the school possesses no special merit. Writing is the only thing decently taught. The children are very ignorant, spiritless, and sullen. They show great surprise at the stranger's questions, and the master interposes that they are not accustomed to be questioned since he has no time for it. Each child has a spelling book, from which lessons are committed to memory and in which a few reading lessons occur. But scarcely any two children have the same book, and they never read in class, but go up one by one to the master's desk. The furniture of the room is mean and insufficient.

G. A school of about 60 pupils, of whom two-thirds are day scholars. Besides the master there is one resident English and one French teacher, and a drawing master who visits. About 10 boys are learning Latin and French, 16 drawing, and three music. All these subjects are separate items in the bill, so are land surveying and mensuration, which are occasionally taught. Master says that parents choose and reject these things very capriciously, and perpetually interfere with his plans. Drawing is confessedly mere copying of pictures on tinted and framed paper, but in his opinion very useless. He could not venture to introduce exercises in free hand or mere outline. "Parents must be pleased in a private school." The room is ornamented with lists of the heights of mountains, lengths of rivers, &c., which the master has drawn out with much care, and which are learned by heart. Master

attaches great importance to these things as exercises of memory. Religious teaching biblical, not dogmatic; part of the boys go to church and part to chapel on Sunday; parents settle this, but do not express any concern about more definite teaching. Master doubts whether the extension of the Oxford and Cambridge local examination system would do much good. It would hardly suit his work, and parents would not care about the certificates or like the expense. Thinks registration would be very useful, but believes that no scheme will do anything to bring teachers together, or overcome their jealousy of each other. Would not accept the title of M.C.P., and regards it as an evidence of weakness. Is not hopeful about public movements of any kind in connexion with this subject. Thinks it better to leave parents to make their own agreements with teachers.

The profession overstocked.

Since the profession is open, and anyone is at liberty to enter it with or without qualification, it has become overstocked. The schools are far too numerous. The number of boarding-schools in the rural districts, and in the suburbs of the towns, is too great to meet the demand; while the day schools and private academies in the towns are still more strikingly in excess. One consequence of this is, that there is an unseemly competition among the private masters to attract pupils. Another is, that the number of scholars is often too low to allow of due economy either in the teaching or in the domestic arrangements.

Professional advertisements.

The advertisements which appear in the local papers just as the half-yearly vacations are about to expire are a scandal to the profession. I need not quote them in detail; but I have read hundreds of them, and have been able in many cases to compare the pretensions they put forth with the actual state of the schools. In prospectuses a mean and poverty-stricken house becomes a "mansion," an ordinary playground is made, by the help of an idealized map of the premises, to look like an extensive park; a young usher, engaged at 20*l.* per annum, and a Frenchman who visits for an hour or two in the week, become "a staff of accomplished and able masters," while, as to the course of instruction,* it is not

* Here are extracts from two prospectuses of private schools in this district.

(*a.*) "The subjects of study for pupils destined for commercial life are Scripture history, evidences, and biography; English grammar, composition, and literature; political, physical, historical, and mathematical geography; ancient and modern history; arithmetic, commercial correspondence, and book-keeping; elementary mathematics and physical science. The German and French languages and literature (daily); the Latin and Greek languages to the extent necessary for understanding the derivation of English words; human physiology in its relation to the laws of health, or the art of maintaining high bodily health and vigour; chemistry, in its application to arts, manufactures, agriculture, and common life."

(*b.*) "The elementary department consists of pupils of eight years of age and upwards, who are carefully instructed in orthography with dictation, reading, etymology, writing, elementary arithmetic, outlines of geography, history, and linear drawing.

"The commercial department consists of those designed for mercantile pursuits, who follow an advanced course of the above subjects, together with German, French, mental and commercial arithmetic, book-keeping by single and double entry, commercial correspondence, a free and bold style of penmanship, stenography, mensuration, land surveying, mechanics, navigation, chemistry, &c.

"The classical department consists principally of those intended for the learned professions, their course of study comprises Latin, Greek, the modern continental languages, Euclid, algebra, geometry, plane and spherical trigonometry, conic sections, mechanics, history, geography, natural philosophy, including botany, chemistry, hydrostatics, optics, &c., landscape drawing and painting."

unfrequently described in language which so far transcends the reality that even the acquirements of a thoroughly educated and accomplished gentleman would look poor and tame beside it.

And the desire to gain pupils often betrays teachers into promising impossible advantages in the way of moral discipline and adaptation for the business of life. It is not only the comforts of a home and the tender watchfulness of a parent, which are often guaranteed in advertisements, but an amount of minute supervision over the religious principles and the formation of character, which would be unattainable even in the best ordered Christian family. Some schools profess to adapt the training of each boy to his future pursuit. Thus one gentleman advertises:

> "As it is an everyday occurrence for boys to be thrown into a sphere
> "for the duties of which they have no aptitude, (and in which, at the best,
> "they can only attain mediocrity) the Principal having a staff of masters
> "(many of whom are *practical* men) will, with the concurrence of the parents,
> "place the students under each, for a short period, in order to ascertain the
> "business or profession for which they may be fitted, and for which they may
> "be especially trained to take a first-class position; unless the parents have
> "already decided upon their son's future calling, in which case his studies
> "will be regulated accordingly."

It is needless to say that all pretensions of this kind pre-suppose extreme ignorance on the part of the parents, and are likely to diminish in number as education becomes better understood. And I believe that there is less of shameless puffing now than formerly, and that there is a visible improvement in the character of private schools. Bad as many of them are, *charlatanry* is on the decline, and the proportion of qualified and conscientious men who adopt the profession increases, as far as I have been able to judge, in a not less rapid ratio than the general intelligence of the people. I shall have occasion to dwell more on the faults of the private school system than on its merits, but it is right to premise that some of those faults are in process of gradual remedy through the increased wakefulness of public opinion on educational subjects.

The food in boarding schools.

For example, I have wholly failed to discover any examples of the typical Yorkshire boarding-school with which Nicholas Nickleby has made us familiar. I have seen schools in which board and education were furnished for 20*l.*, and even 18*l.* per annum, but have been unable to find evidences of bad feeding or physical neglect. As a rule, the children in the cheap boarding-schools are in good health, and are sufficiently though coarsely fed. The accommodations in the houses are mean, and the sleeping arrangements often bad; but the domestic comfort obtainable is little, if at all, inferior to that which the boys would probably enjoy in the homes from which they come. But, to say the truth, I do not attach much value to the information I have been able to collect respecting the food given in boarding-schools. I have been present during many school meals; but the date of my visit was generally fixed beforehand, and I sometimes had reason to believe that I was

honoured with a show day. There is no one question contained in your printed forms of inquiry which was so often condemned as inquisitorial, or which so seldom received a satisfactory answer as "Of what does each meal consist?" One gentleman, with convenient vagueness, fills up the blank space with the words, "Good Yorkshire cheer," and many omit to reply altogether. On the whole, I believe that abundance of diet is the one matter on which parents are sensitive and watchful, and on which they may be safely left to make their own bargains with schoolmasters.* The increased facilities for travelling have caused the visits of boarders to their homes to be much more frequent than formerly; and it seems to me that solicitude about the health of children—the one point on which the most ignorant mothers always have a strong opinion,—is sufficiently alive to render public suggestion and assistance to a great degree superfluous.

"Cheap" boarding schools.

The question is often asked, how can a man contrive to feed and educate a number of boys at 20*l.* per annum, and make a living out of his business? This question admits of two answers. In the first place, he does *not* provide board and education for that sum; for under the name of extras, the bill is always swollen by many additional charges. In the second place, when the terms are very low, it is in the education that the pinching is felt. The starvation of the mind is less likely to be detected at home than that of the body, and good food is often paid for at the price of insufficient teaching.

Extras.

In fact the advertised terms for board and education are very misleading. The lower they are, the greater is often the proportion borne by the actual bill to the professed charges. It is not only that each additional subject of instruction beyond the elements is paid for as an extra; but books, stationery, seat in church, washing, drill, and all little privileges, are separately charged for; and on each of these items there is a profit to the master. I have been favoured with the opportunity of inspecting many school bills, some of which have been included in the returns sent to me, and others furnished by parents; and I generally find that a sum varying in amount from one-third to three-fourths of the advertised or nominal charge per quarter is added to that charge. The proportions vary very much in different establishments. But even in good schools I have been surprised to find how many additional charges were made. One boy had coffee or meat at breakfast, another tea instead of milk, another a separate bed, another a

* I saw enough, however, to convince me that the art of cookery, and the power to economise the substances used as food, are greatly needed in schools. At present, the meals are generally monotonous and unsavoury, and yet wasteful. Great bleeding joints are served up and distributed in lumps to boys, which, if properly cooked and made toothsome, and served with abundance of vegetables, might give nutriment enough for two meals instead of one. A very little study of dietetics, of such a book for example as Dr. E. Smith's Practical Dietary, if supplemented with some knowledge of the best mode of preparing food, would produce a wholesome revolution in school dinners. But there are no means of directing the attention of teachers to such points, while all professional training is inaccessible to them, and while each man is left to try his own experiments, without help or guidance from others.

separate room, another extra private tuition, and for each of these and the like indulgences, separate charges were made. In some large schools it seemed to me that each parent had made a separate contract as to the amount of comfort or attention his child should receive; and that the children of rich, ostentatious, or over-indulgent parents were all treated exceptionally. The effect of all this on the worth of the school as a place for the formation of a manly character seems to be most mischievous. There can be nothing bracing in the moral atmosphere of a school in which distinctions of this kind, founded not on considerations of health or necessity, but merely on the whims or extravagance of parents, are daily obtruded upon the notice of the boys. The unity of the discipline is broken up, and the position of the master, who ought to be able to give and withhold indulgences according to merit, becomes exceedingly embarrassing.

Specimens of bills.

I will give one or two examples of bills in boarding schools of different classes:

A.

	£	s.	d.
Board and education	24	0	0
Latin	4	4	0
Music	4	0	0
Drawing	4	0	0
Laundress	2	2	0
Books	1	3	0
Stationery	2	2	6
Pew, repairs, &c.	0	16	6
	£42	16	0

B.

	£	s.	d.
Board and education	31	10	0
Extra board	4	4	0
Separate bed	2	2	0
Extra branches of instruction, *e.g.*, French, German, drawing, chemistry, &c.	11	9	0
Extras, *e.g.*, washing, pews, and subscription, library, &c.	4	18	6
	£54	3	6

C.

	£	s.	d.
Board and education	39	18	0
Use of books and stationery	2	12	6
Drawing and painting materials	9	18	9
French	4	4	0
German	4	4	0
Pew rent	0	10	0
Gymnastics	0	15	0
Lectures, exhibitions, &c.	2	2	0
Music master's account	8	4	2
Sundries	0	10	0
	£76	1	5

D.

	£	s.	d.
Board and education	50	8	0
Coffee breakfasts	2	2	0
Stationery and use of books	0	10	0
French	3	0	0
Surveying	3	0	0
Drawing	3	0	0
Chemistry	3	0	0
Extra chemical lessons (analytical)	3	0	0
Books for private study	0	12	0
Chemicals	1	15	7
Library and amusement fund	0	5	0
Drawing materials, &c.	1	7	11
	£73	10	7

These specimens are, I believe, fairly selected, and do not represent extreme cases. I have not chosen those in which pocket money, travelling expenses, or tradesmen's accounts are included.

They will suffice to indicate the relation borne by the actual cost of a boy's residence in school to the professed charges as given in advertisements.* I have no right to suppose that any of these charges are unreasonable, but they are greatly complained of by many parents. The best teachers, too, express anxiety to alter the system. They feel that it gives the parents opportunities of perpetual interference, which are often misused. They would like to keep in their own hands the curriculum of instruction, and to give to each pupil the best teaching which the establishment can furnish, without submitting every detail to the discretion of the parents. But in order to do this they ought to charge what are called "inclusive terms;" and these would look large compared with the published tariff of other schoolmasters, and might have the effect of keeping pupils away. In self-defence, therefore, many schoolmasters issue in their advertisements promises which they know to be delusive,† and which they could not keep if they would.

It often happens that a schoolmaster takes a house, lays out money in adapting it for the purpose of a school, and sets up an establishment suited to a given number of pupils. He estimates for example that 35 boarders will enable him to keep up a proper staff in school and household, and will give him a profit sufficient to maintain himself and family. But his expectations are only partially realized. After advertising and asking the recommendations of his friends, he succeeds perhaps in obtaining 25 pupils. What is he to do? All his calculations and his scale of charges assume that he will have the larger number; 25 pupils barely yield enough to defray the constant, urgent expenses; it is upon the last ten that all his profit and comfort depend. He cannot reduce the rent of the house, nor the general expenses of the household, nor the goodness of the food supplied to the boys. In effect he reduces his teaching staff. He dismisses an experienced assistant, and replaces him by a youthful usher, at a salary of 20*l.*, or dispenses with one altogether. There are many schools in this condition, which though conducted by anxious and honourable men, are nevertheless wretchedly taught; because the masters are too much preoccupied by the difficulty of getting a living, to have any zeal or intelligence to spare for their proper work; and are unable to provide competent assistants to do it for them.

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* The discrepancy between the advertised terms, and the actual school bill is still more marked in day schools. Here the extras are relatively greater. Firing is often the subject of a special charge; and books, stationery, and fees for separate subjects are the same as for boarders. Hence the bills of a day scholar generally amount to double the estimated expense; and often to much more. Thus, in a school where the nominal charge is 4*l.* 4*s.* 0*d.* per annum, I find book-keeping charged 15*s.*, drawing class 12*s.*, singing 10*s.*, Latin 2*l.* 2*s.* 0*d.*, French 3*l.* 3*s.* 0*d.*, and these items together with other extras make up a total of 15*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.*

† It must not be understood that grammar school bills always differ from those sent in by private teachers. I have not, however, thought it necessary to give examples of the former, since the abundant statistics which have been sent in direct to the Commissioners will give more trustworthy and comprehensive conclusions on this point than any generalizations founded on my limited experience in this district.

Waste of educational resources in small schools.

There is an inevitable waste of educational resources in every school of less than 50 scholars. It is impossible to use a given amount of teaching power with proper effect in them; and in order to secure efficient classification and a right division of duty it becomes necessary to raise the average cost of instruction per head to a high sum. It may safely be said of small private schools, that those which are cheap are not good; that those which are good are never cheap; and that the majority of them are neither cheap nor good. Out of the 81 schools whose statistics I have received, 53 return their numbers as under 50, and of them 26 contain less than 30 pupils. The average is a little over 30. It is evident that whatever ability these schools can command is not economically employed, and that the same number of children, if assembled in larger schools, might be much better taught, and at a less cost.

In very few of these schools the number is purposely kept low in order to meet the case of invalid children, of those who have been neglected at home, or who, from want of natural ability or some other reason, are unfit to enter on the rough competition of a large school; and therefore require special watchfulness and individual care. My list contains four little schools of this kind in which eight or ten boarders are managed rather as members of a private family than as schoolboys, and in which there is individual instruction of a kind and parental character. But I cannot find that the smaller private schools of 20, 30, or 40 scholars offer any advantages to compensate for the waste of teaching power and the absence of due emulation, of which I have before spoken. The supervision in them is apt to be even less careful than in larger schools. For when a school is organized on a great scale, provision must always be made for the superintendence of the playground and of the hours of leisure; while in all the details of daily conduct there is need of a method and a strict obedience to rules, which are of great value in laying the foundation of an orderly life. But in a small school the same need does not seem to exist for these precautions, and they are often altogether neglected. It has seemed to me that the discipline in the small schools was more lax than in greater ones; while the temptations were certainly not less. The true alternative appears to be, either the shelter of parental or purely private education on the one hand, or the robuster discipline of a great public school on the other. Each method of education has its advantages. But the average private boarding school has very few. It has no history, no ennobling traditions, no public spirit, none of the great strifes and trials which make a school "an image of the mighty world;" and, on the other hand, it is as little like a home as if it possessed all these things.

Small private schools not more like homes than large.

Undue anxiety to conciliate parents.

I have already striven to show that the faults of the grammar schools arise from a fruitless and half-hearted attempt to carry out theories of education which are obsolete, and from an unwillingness to adapt themselves to the requirements of our own age. But the faults of the private schools are of an opposite character. They seem to me to reflect only too faithfully the notions of education

which prevail among the middle classes of the 19th century, and to make their chief mistakes in the very effort to meet the supposed demands of modern life. The condition on which a private school exists is, that it shall please the parents. And the ideal of education which is current among the parents is so low that it is often the meanest and least useful part of education which pleases them best. They ask, in relation to each subject of instruction, "Of "what use will this be to my boy in the warehouse or office in "which I am going to place him?" They ask for a *practical* education for their sons, and their notion of practicalness is that of some visible relation to the particular pursuit in which the boy is to get his living. Of the value of mental culture for its own sake; of the importance of that sort of indirect training which enlarges a learner's mind and helps him to bring his whole capacity to bear upon *any* employment in which he may be engaged; of the influence of literature, of grammar, or of pure science, upon the way in which its possessor handles the whole work of life, there is as yet but little recognition among the class of persons whose sons fill the private schools. The end they contemplate in sending a boy to school is that he shall be prepared to "get on" in life. Accordingly the common complaint among teachers is that they are hampered in all their plans by petty and injudicious interference from parents. One sends word that his son must not learn Latin because it will be of no use to him; another thinks it probable that his son may be brought into relation with Mediterranean merchants and therefore desires that he may learn Greek! A third attaches great importance to mechanical or architectural drawing. All think it a great thing if the boy writes a showy hand, and if he brings home a book filled with red ink lines and figures duly labelled with the technical terms used or supposed to be used in shops or upon 'Change. The best teachers are always striving against the tendency to let their work be degraded thus. And as their position becomes more firmly established they are able to carry the public with them and to familiarize them with plans which are conceived in a better spirit. But this improvement, though real, is but slow; and at present the number of schools in which no attempt has been made to comply with a false shop-keeping view of the purposes of education appears to me to be very small.

Its effects upon the 'morale' of the schools.

Some of the devices by which popularity is sought among parents are very curious. One master informed me that it occupied the whole of his vacation to go round among the parents to pay visits, to talk to them about their sons and to solicit their future patronage. He could not, he said, "keep up his connexion" without doing so. It is discovered also that a flattering estimate of a scholar's powers and progress is always welcome at home; and I have been shown some statements which, though not disagreeable to parental ears, were expressed in terms of gross exaggeration, and were calculated to do great harm to boys. On my visit to a school, just before the vacation, I was taken to see an exhibition of the prizes which were about to be distributed. Many of them

were large showy articles, such as figure in bazaars; and there were one or two clocks and writing desks, which though somewhat vulgar and tawdry in their ornamentation must have cost a considerable sum. I observed that the number of these articles was very large in proportion to that of the scholars; and was told that it was the custom to give every boy a prize, or, if he had not deserved one, a gift to encourage him to better things next year. It was admitted that the object of this lavish distribution of prizes was to gratify the parents; and that many of them would be displeased, and would probably remove their sons, if the presents were not given.

Its effects upon the teaching.

Some of the results of the stronger feeling of responsibility to parents which is enforced upon private teachers are, however, very beneficial. For instance, the practice of keeping a careful register of a pupil's daily progress and of his position in his class is more general in the private than in the grammar schools. By a system of marking the teacher is enabled to send to the parent, at the end of the month or quarter, a tabulated statement showing the standing of a pupil in regard to each of the subjects of instruction as well as his conduct and general attention to work. Some of these plans appeared to me to display great ingenuity, and when the record is an honest one, and is not written with the ulterior purpose of "giving satisfaction," they are probably well calculated to awaken the interest of parents in the details of instruction and to give a wholesome stimulus to the pupils.

Writing.

Again, writing is better taught in the private than in the grammar schools. It is one of the things which is sure to be understood at home and the evidences of a boy's improvement in it are easy to give. Accordingly, much pains are bestowed by teachers upon the preparation of comely copy-books and piece books; and I have seen many specimens of finished and beautiful writing in private schools. It seems to me that much of the time spent in the production of ornamental penmanship is wasted, and that a disproportionate value is attached in private schools to this accomplishment. In the actual business of life, no one wants more than a clear and legible hand, and, except as a discipline in neatness and care, there is no indirect educational value in so mechanical an employment. And good writing is often attained, at a great and needless sacrifice of time and paper, owing to a neglect of the method by which the art can be most skilfully and expeditiously taught. When a man sets himself to *teach* writing, he may bring his pupils up to a given point of excellence in half the time which is necessary, if he merely permits them to write long copies with little or no supervision. Assiduous practice for two or three hours a day may indeed make the dullest pupil a good writer, but the need for this expenditure of time would diminish in just the proportion in which skill was employed in teaching. I was very much struck with the plan adopted in one school where the writing was finished with unusual beauty. The teacher gave a series of lessons on each of the letters of the

alphabet and on each of the common combinations. He illustrated the shape and proportions of the letters by his own diagrams on the black-board and caused the whole class to follow up his lesson by a written exercise which was long or short according to the difficulty of the particular letter. He did not seek to encumber his pupils' memory with the technical terms used in Mulhaüser's system, but he availed himself of that system for the classification of the letters and of their several parts. In all these elementary lessons it was insisted that the writing should be large, that the proportions should be exact, and that the part performed by the pupil should be slowly done. The teacher set nearly all the copies, and did not depend wholly on the use of engraved lines, which boys are apt to regard as unattainable standards of excellence. Very little small-hand was permitted till the pupils had been well drilled in large text. I found, on inquiry, that although the results produced were much greater, far less time was devoted to writing here than in ordinary schools. As a rule, the number of copybooks filled and the number of hours spent in writing are wholly disproportioned to the end attained.

Arithmetic.

But the *pièce de résistance* in private academies is arithmetic. It is to this that one-third of the time of a boy is often devoted, and on this that many schools base their reputation. To any grown man who asks himself, what is the sort of knowledge which has enriched him most, and how many times in his life he has had occasion to work out a rule of three sum, the current belief in the paramount importance of "cyphering" in education will appear one of the most curious of delusions. Goldsmith's schoolmaster, of whom it was said that—

> "Lands he could measure, terms and tides presage,
> And e'en the story ran that he could gauge,"

was a fair type of many of his successors; and there is a vague sort of public opinion which still encourages teachers to suppose that arithmetic—not its science or theory, but its application to surveying and book-keeping, to the measurement of the solid contents of a ship, or of a haystack—is the wisest, and the essentially practical employment for a school boy. Accordingly heaps of figures are written down, and transferred into cyphering books, and the frequency with which questions about chests of tea and yards of cloth, and discount occur, is often taken as the measure of the preparation which is thus being gained for active life. I have already referred (*ante*, p. 77), to the use which might be made of the theory of arithmetic as an instrument of intellectual discipline, and to the worthlessness, even for business purposes, of much of the work done in schools under the name of cyphering. But my experience in the private schools has left on me a still stronger impression on this point, and I must here briefly revert to it.

The secret of the shocking waste of time over arithmetic is, that there is so little supervision during the exercise. A boy sits down with Walkinghame or Colenso before him, and works alone. He finds the sums grouped under certain rules, and he takes them in order. As soon as he has done one he finds all the sums alike,

and that each is comparatively easy. If not he consults the answer, and *works towards it.* If he sees that the expected result is not coming, he tries another multiplier, or shifts a figure, and so secures the answer. Whether he uses the right method the first or the second time, is scarcely known to the teacher; although this makes all the difference as regards his mastery of the rule. But all the while, he is gaining no habit of reliance on the accuracy of his own work, little power over numbers, no promptitude, and no flexibility or tact in adapting his mind to questions which are the same in substance, but different in form. These are the qualities which are most required in business, and which might be cultivated even where no theory is taught, and where the needs of practical life alone were considered. The common notion in schools is that a good arithmetician means a good computer,—not one who *knows* the subject, but one who can *do* a certain work. But if we suppose a pupil merely designed to be a good computer, he should be chiefly trained to concentration of thought, to the absolute exclusion from the mind for a few seconds, of everything but the question, and to the power of giving an answer which is both rapid and correct. In all other departments of thought, haste is apt to be associated with inaccuracy; but in arithmetic, the quickest work is generally the most correct. It would seem, however, as if this was greatly overlooked in schools, for the hour of the arithmetic lesson is not unfrequently treated as the teacher's holiday, or, at least, as a time which he is at liberty to devote to ruling copy-books, or to some other work.

Mental arithmetic.

In some schools, even though written arithmetic is conducted in this way, the teachers are sensible of the need for greater readiness, and so have adopted the habit of giving an occasional oral exercise, which seems to be technically known in the schools as "mental arithmetic." This has its use undoubtedly, but the questions are often limited to a few special cases, such as the prices of dozens or scores, of cwts., of ounces of tea at a certain price per lb., of interest at 5 per cent., and other problems which happen to present some accidental facility for easy computation.* Since the problems occurring in actual business seldom accommodate themselves to these selected rules, it would probably be useful to extend such exercises, and so to vary them as to make them apply to as many combinations of number as possible. But, in fact, to conduct a rapid and spirited exercise in mental arithmetic, and to make it tell, not only on the skill with which a boy works sums, but also on his general steadfastness of attention and promptitude of thought, require a sort of power which few teachers accustom themselves to exert.

Book-keeping.

Much stress is often laid on book-keeping, and in many schools an entire set of ledgers and day-books appears to be kept; imagi-

* *e.g.* In working the price of a dozen, the pence may be called shillings; of a score, the shillings may be taken as pounds; 5 per cent. is worked by taking a shilling for each pound.

nary transactions to a large amount being entered in the day-book and duly posted in the ledger. Some parents make a special stipulation that this subject shall be taught, and an extra charge is often made for it. Yet it may well be doubted whether the time spent on it would not be more usefully devoted to other exercises. I cannot find that the knowledge of book-keeping which is gained in schools is very highly esteemed by merchants. I asked an eminent banker, what were the qualifications he most desired in a young clerk. "Why," he replied, "of course, we inquire first "about his character, and the sort of home he lives in. And as "to school knowledge, we like that he should write well, that he "should have had as thoughtful an education as possible, and—that "he should *not* have learned book-keeping. We have our own "system of accounts, and the spurious commercial phraseology "used in school-books, would only hinder him from acquiring it. "Give us a lad of cultivated intelligence, and a good general "knowledge of arithmetic, and we will undertake to teach him all "that is special to our own business in three days." I have reason to believe that this which is true of banking, is true of other mercantile employments, and that the efforts which schoolmasters make to force a boy's mind prematurely into some particular busisiness-groove, are sadly wasted. They do not even serve the lower or economic purpose which is contemplated by the teachers; while they greatly hinder the right development of a learner's general capacity and intelligence. If arithmetic were taught in its principles, and if attention were given rather to the philosophy and meaning of the rules than to their specific applications, the training would be more truly "practical," and a large portion of the time now spent in the tedious and unprofitable work of "doing sums" would be reserved for better purposes.

A similar remark applies also to most of the other attempts on the part of masters to give "special training adapted for the warehouse or the shop." The making of invoices is quite a *specialité* in one school; in another the study of stenography or short hand, in a third the manufacture of what is called "mercantile correspondence," in which boys address to each other elaborately flourished letters, respecting the arrival of large consignments, or the regret with which they learn that the bills of an "esteemed customer" have been returned dishonoured. In several schools I found the boys making architectural elevations and ground plans of imaginary buildings; while in many, a highly coloured map or a sectional drawing of a steam-engine in full working order is considered to be an achievement of sufficient importance to demand a very large expenditure of time. Teachers tell me piteously that the parents like these things, that they are the only evidences of progress which are valued at home, and as the labour devoted to their preparation is very great, the intellectual culture is necescessarily kept down to a low level.

English grammar receives, as a rule, greater attention in the private than in the grammar schools. It is sometimes taught with English grammar.

much intelligence, and the analysis of words and sentences is occasionally carried far enough in the higher classes to serve a real educational purpose. But even here the desire to produce visible results often vitiates the teaching, and betrays teachers into practices which are rather showy than useful. I am particularly struck with this in regard to composition. It is the practice in many schools to give themes as exercises; and subjects are often given out which, though they seem very appropriate for an essay, are wholly out of the range of a boy's knowledge or interests. A composition on "*Virtus est bona res*," or "Honesty is the best policy;" or "You cannot make a silk purse out of a sow's ear;" especially if it is made to conform to a fixed logical outline, *e.g.*,—introduction, historical illustration, quotation, example from actual life, general conclusion,—is apt to be a very pretentious and barren thing. It is never well at any time in life that we should be writing essays on what we do not understand; and the best way to secure that the man shall hereafter write sensibly about what may concern him then, is to make the boy write on subjects which he cares about. Short narratives and simple statements—not sentiments—respecting the facts with which the boy is actually conversant, are generally found to interest him, and to encourage him in the art of composition. But if they are short enough to admit of exhaustive correction, and simple enough to represent a genuine and natural exercise of a boy's own powers, they are not thought to suffice for show purposes; and for this reason school compositions are often more ambitious than useful.

Etymology.

In schools in which Latin is little taught, it is becoming common to make a separate study of etymology, and more than one master advertises that he teaches "Latin and Greek, so far as "is necessary for the understanding of the etymology of English "words." Long lists of Latin and Greek roots are appended to many modern reading-books, and a number of derivatives is attached. Now, if a boy has advanced far enough to know what derivation means, I know no better mental exercise for him than I have occasionally heard on the etymology of words. The teacher writes down a group of English words in which a common element is recognizable. He gives in its original form the Latin or Greek word from which they come, with the primitive meaning. He shows how the word has changed in its signification, how sometimes it has been used in a literal and sometimes in a metaphorical sense. He traces the various shades of meaning represented by the English derivatives; and he winds up the exercise by requiring his pupils to bring to him next day each word in a separate sentence of their own composition.* When to this exercise is added

* It is remarkable how seldom the simple device of giving a boy a word and telling him to use it, is adopted in schools. A pupil may give the meanings of words, and receive explanations of them, but unless he actually puts them into sentences of his own forming they make no appreciable addition to his vocabulary, or to his store of thoughts. Some English exercises analogous to Latin versification are much wanted in schools.

a careful inquiry into the significance of the prefixes and endings of composite words, and something of the general laws which regulate word-building, and by which a foreign word may be recognized and its history traced; the value of etymology as a discipline in thinking, even for those who do not learn Latin, is very great. But teaching of this kind, though not absent from the private schools, is very rare in them. To make such a lesson intelligible, some knowledge of the original languages is required, and still greater knowledge of the minuter transformations in meaning which words undergo. When these conditions are not fulfilled, the teaching of etymologies appears to be one of the most unmeaning and pedantic of all school employments. Nothing can be more absurd than to hear a boy, who does not even know how one word can be derived from another, tell you that "commit" comes from *con*, and *mittere* to send; that "determine" comes from *de* down, and *terminus* a boundary; or that "matter" is derived from *materies*, timber. The bare statement of these facts, so far from helping him to understand the meaning of the English words, only mystifies and bewilders him. More than half the words contained in the common lists of derivatives are likely to be positively misunderstood, by identifying them with their Latin and Greek roots without further teaching. The tracing of a pure *English* word to its origin, is almost always helpful in the understanding of its meaning. Yet the Anglo-Saxon derivations are seldom or never learned in schools. The study of etymology, as it is called, consists in learning the Greek and Latin lists, and as an exercise of memory alone is more specious than profitable.

Columns of words learned by heart.

And the practice is still common in private schools of committing to memory long columns of words, alphabetically arranged with their meanings, and saying them 12 or 20 at a time as a lesson. This practice is supposed to teach spelling and meanings at the same time. Yet all the most successful teachers tell me that it is a very unsatisfactory method of doing either. For spelling is a matter for the eye rather than for the ear, and the frequent use of written exercises either in the form of transcribing or dictation familiarizes a boy with the *aspect* of words, far more than any oral exercise. And in spelling-books and dictionaries, words are only grouped alphabetically, or according to some arbitrary rules as to the number of syllables they contain. Important and unimportant words are placed together, and no attempt is made to distinguish them from each other. Hence the learner finds himself studying, with equal care or with equal indifference, words which he is scarcely ever likely to see again, and words which it is of great importance that he should understand. The best exercises in spelling and in meanings are to be found in the books a pupil reads, and in the words which occur in the ordinary course of his lessons. Long columns of isolated words are found to have no interest for him; and although they may be learned by heart, and repeated with a given amount of effort, they soon drop out of the mind altogether, because they are linked by no associations with the other work which he does.

Memory work.

In fact there is no one *crux* whereby the skilled teacher is so clearly distinguishable from the unskilled, as the use which he makes of what may be called verbal memory in teaching. Everybody is agreed that the memory is to be cultivated; but no one who has made the art of teaching a subject of serious thought, seems to doubt that the sort of appeal which is to be made to the faculty of memory depends wholly upon the nature of the subject which has to be learned. Thus there are things to be studied, in which the judgment alone has to be appealed to. The explanation of a rule in arithmetic, a theorem in geometry, the reason of an eclipse, or the right use of the subjunctive, if once understood and supplemented by appropriate exercises, fastens itself in the mind for life. In just the proportion in which the understanding follows the theory in these cases, it becomes unnecessary to give any form of words at all, to secure that it shall be remembered. Then there are other things which are to be remembered in substance rather than in form; such as the contents of a book of history, or geography, or of experimental science. Here, so long as the *facts* are remembered, it is better that they should be reproduced in the learner's own words, than in those of the author. Thirdly, there are things which should be remembered in form as well as in substance; either because the language in which they are embodied needs to be concise and exact—as a rule in Latin grammar or a formulary of faith; or because of the great usefulness of the fact—as a prominent date in history, the multiplication table, or the value of π; or because there is some special worth and beauty in the language itself, apart from the truth it is intended to convey,—as a text of Scripture, a verse of poetry, or some choice passage from an ancient author. In all these cases the *ipsissima verba* of the book have a real use, and anything short of perfect accuracy in repetition betokens imperfect knowledge. Lastly, there are some facts with which no human memory ought to be encumbered at all. Such are the dates of obscure events, the length of the Burrampooter, the number of pints in a kilderkin, or the latitude and longitude of Astrakan. It is just conceivable that once in a lifetime these facts may be wanted, but all that an educated man requires is such a general knowledge of the subjects to which they belong as may enable him to refer to the proper authority, and find the facts when he wants them.

In schools, however, nothing is more common than to find all these subjects treated alike. To set a lesson to be learnt by heart is the most convenient of all forms of teaching; and accordingly nine-tenths of the instruction given in many schools assume this shape. In one school conducted by a clergyman the principal memory lesson consisted of tables of weights and measures, which were publicly repeated three times a week. The master said he thought it very important; and the boys, who were ignorant of most things, and could not follow the meaning of the simplest lesson in their own reading book, were able to tell me with mechanical correctness, the number of gallons in a hogshead, or of inches in a Flemish ell. In many private schools the history, the geography, and the grammar are all learned by heart. A few

sentences from a text-book are set as the lesson tobe prepared over night, and, unless they are recited without a mistake, the lesson is rejected. Thus the learner's effort is less required for the mastery of the fact, than for the task of remembering the bald and inelegant sentence in which the compiler of the school book has generally embodied the fact. Long lists of dates, of the heathen gods, of the lengths of rivers, or of latitudes and longitudes, are also often committed to memory. And in these lessons there is seldom any effort to distinguish between the little and the great, between the *datum* which ought to abide in the memory, as the centre round which other knowledge will cluster; and the unfruitful fact, which no well-instructed man would care to remember, and which every boy hastens to forget as soon as he can.

Catechisms.

The use of catechisms, though probably less general than formerly, is still very common in private schools. In some, English grammar is reduced to the form of question and answer; and from four to six questions are set as a lesson. In others I find catechisms of history, of ancient mythology, of elementary science, or "common things." There is no form of lesson so barren of intellectual result as this. I have taken special pains to test the work, whenever the teacher has told me that a subject was taught by means of a catechism. And I have never once found that the subject so taught was understood. Such knowledge as is gained in this way is always scrappy and incoherent. Superficially, a catechism looks more like an intellectual exercise than a treatise or a compendium. Practically it is far less so. For the fact that there are questions in the book releases the teacher from the need for any original questioning; while the fragmentary character of the answers prevents the learner from gaining any knowledge of the subject as a whole. I know few things which have so great a tendency to lower the character of the teacher's work, and to render it mechanical and inanimate, as the practice of using books in which there are printed questions and answers.

More oral teaching needed.

For the one thing on which the intellectual life of a school depends, is the goodness of its oral teaching. The most careful book-work and repetitions are found to do but little. It is the *vis vivida* of the teacher's voice; and the actual contact between the mind of the learner and that of his instructor, which alone deserve the name of teaching. And no man is qualified for the office of a teacher who is not expert in explanation, in illustrating the subject he has in hand, and in presenting new truth in the most attractive form. His questions, if they are to serve any useful purpose, should be spontaneous. They should grow out of the learners' answers. They should follow the development of the subject, should be pressing and urgent at some points, and not at others. But the mass of the teachers shrink from this labour, and avail themselves of any substitute for it which they can find. Of book-work and written exercises there is more than enough in the private schools; of oral explanation, collective teaching, blackboard illustration, and brisk skilful questioning, curiously little.

Higher education in private schools.

The extent to which the private schools provide the district with *higher* education is very limited. As far as I am able to judge, not more than 5 per cent. of the private schools are able to give a boy the training which would fit him to matriculate in a university; and the number of boys who proceed from private schools direct to college is exceedingly small. Indeed in the whole number of returns furnished to me, credit is only taken for five pupils who have done so within the last 10 years. The number of boys who learn Greek hardly reaches 1 per cent. The elements of Latin are very often, though not invariably taught in those schools which call themselves classical; but the number of scholars whose study of Latin suffices to enable them to read an author, would be rather too favourably stated at 3 per cent. of the whole number of pupils. French is more generally taught, and about 10 per cent. of the scholars have made some perceptible progress in the language. The number of boys learning German is very small, and certainly does not exceed 2 per cent. I have been in four private schools in which the master takes special interest in chemistry, or some other branch of physical science; has fitted up a lecture-room with suitable apparatus, and is accustomed to give systematic lectures on the subject. But in all other cases the study of science is either altogether neglected or confined to the learning by heart of some manual which does little more than explain a few technical terms. In the department of pure science a little more is done, chiefly because algebra and Euclid are more definite, and lessons and exercises in them are more easily "set." I compute that about 8 per cent. of the scholars in the private schools have made a beginning in one of these studies, although I have very rarely found a boy so well instructed in Euclid that he was able to demonstrate a proposition of which the figure was slightly altered, the significant letters transposed, or any other line produced than that which is given in the printed diagram. Of the power to make a corollary from a geometrical proposition; to find a demonstration for a cognate theorem, or to interpret the elementary formulæ of plane trigonometry, I have seldom found an instance in a school of any kind, unless the pupil was above 16. And in even the best of the private schools the number of boys who exceed this age is far less than in the grammar schools.

Printed examination papers no *criteria* of the character of school-work.

These statements may seem inconsistent with the professions made by private teachers, and especially with the printed examination papers, which it is now the fashion to publish at the end of the half-year, as a sort of advertisement of what has been done in the school. In some cases I have found that the printed questions bore no real relation to the course which had been pursued, and that they had been drawn up rather for the behoof of those who were outside the walls. In one instance large placards were affixed to a railway station, containing copies of the papers which purported to have been set at a neighbouring school, at the last examination; and these were full of puzzles, which were clearly designed rather

for the public than for the boys. I received a large packet of examination papers from one school, and was much impressed with the range of the knowledge which they represented. In particular, there was one difficult Latin paper, with passages from Terence, and philological questions thereon. On my visit, I asked for the class which had been reading Terence, and was informed that there never had been more than one boy in it, and that he had left. The classical work of the school was very elementary. Yet papers, which related to the work of this one exceptional pupil, had been printed and circulated as typical of the general character of the instruction.

Discipline.

No observations of mine justify me in making any report on the discipline adopted in the schools. The day of a stranger's visit is apt to place the school in an abnormal state, and it is needless to say that punishments are not administered on that occasion. Trustworthy information about the mode, motive, and frequency of its administration is, from the nature of the case, hard to obtain. On the surface, however, I see little difference between the discipline of the grammar schools and that of the private schools; neither class of school, *as a class*, can be said to have a system of discipline. Its nature depends wholly on the personal qualities of the master, and on the influence which he exerts. The most striking examples of good order occur in the schools where the intellectual work is of the highest quality. There it is always maintained with the least display of the mechanism of government, and with the smallest self-assertion or fuss. Serious and well-directed work is the best safeguard for the moral tone of a school, and enables a teacher to dispense with many of the precautions which become necessary in ill-taught schools. Next to this condition, I have been struck with the importance of separating, wherever possible, the functions of the teacher from those of the mere disciplinarian, or superintendent of playground. In small schools it is of course necessary to entrust some of the domestic discipline to the usher. But unless he happens to enter with real zest into the games, he is apt to feel very weary of superintending the boys, and to be too jaded and dispirited to look after them properly. The business is much better done by a drill serjeant, who has to do with the boys only in their hours of leisure; and in large schools I have found persons of this class helping the boys in athletic games, and controlling dormitories and lavatories much more efficiently than teachers, who looked upon it as subordinate work. I believe that there is true economy in an arrangement which gives the assistant teachers more leisure; and I am sure that the indirect effect of a good system of military drill on the promptitude, obedience, and general bearing of the boys is very marked.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.—GIRLS.

PRIVATE SCHOOLS. Girls.

In the instructions to your assistants some doubt is expressed whether the education of girls came fairly within the purview of the Commission, since purely private and domestic tuition was no the object of your inquiry, and since girls were frequently edu cated at home. But it is apparent from the statistics given in Appendix I. that for every ten boys there are seven girls under instruction in schools. This general assertion is true whether we take the whole number of scholars of all ranks under instruction, or whether we confine ourselves to the middle and upper classes in whom you are specially interested. But for the children of the poor provision of a public and efficient kind is already made in corresponding proportion. In inspected schools under the Privy Council the same instruction, with the single exception of sewing, is given to children of both sexes; and the same examination under the Revised Code is applied to all. But it cannot be said that we possess resources for intermediate and upper education for girls, equal in amount to seven-tenths of that which exists for boys. On the contrary, I have shown that in this district no endowed school provides such education in any way, no joint-stock or proprietary college in Yorkshire has ever even contemplated the admission of girls; while of the religious bodies the Roman Catholics, the Quakers, and the Moravians alone include female pupils in their denominational institutions. With these exceptions, the whole of the secondary and higher education of girls in this district is given in private schools. And this circumstance seems to invest such schools with special public importance, and to give special significance to that part of your inquiry which relates to them.

Extent of the inquiry.

The number of girls' schools to which I sent your circulars and forms of inquiry was 156. Of these I received 72 filled up with more or less detail. Sixteen governesses sent me letters of explanation, showing that from the smallness or newness of the schools the required particulars could not easily be furnished. In nine cases I learned that the school had been given up. Three ladies who did not fill up the returns wrote to invite a visit, and promised to give particulars to me personally. Three others declined absolutely to hold any communication with the Commissioners, while from the remaining 56 I received no answer. The proportion of tacit refusals to give information seems greater than in boys' schools, but I attribute this in great measure to the fact that girls' schools change hands, or die out altogether more frequently, and that a directory of a given date—say four years ago—gives a far less trustworthy list of the present ownership of girls' than of boys' schools.

Its difficulty.

And it must be owned that your inquiry was somewhat more formidable and unintelligible to the governesses than to the schoolmasters. It is true that every form I sent out was accompanied with a letter briefly stating the object of the Commissioners' inquiry. Yet it was quite curious to see how your designs were misunderstood. One lady insisted on regarding the Commission as

a branch of the Social Science Association. Another had recently been induced to sign a memorial in favour of the extension of the Cambridge Local Examinations to Girls, and on receiving the papers she wrote to me in much alarm to say that this was not what she meant, and that her part in the memorial had been wrongly interpreted. A third simply dismissed the whole inquiry as "inquisitorial and irrelevant:" while several others, after consultation with clerical or other advisers, had come to the conclusion that there was a design to put all private seminaries on the footing of the National schools, and that "Government inspection" should be resisted in every form.

Notwithstanding these difficulties, more than 70 girls' schools were, through the courtesy of the principals, made accessible to me; and the list of these was found, with very few exceptions, to comprise the most important schools in the district. In selecting 30 of these for the purpose of a visit, I was mainly guided by the desire to see characteristic examples of schools of different classes, and it has thus happened, as in the case of boys' schools, that I owe an apology to many teachers whose invitations I found it impossible to accept.

Examples of girls' schools.

I think it better here again to record a little of my experience in detail, before proceeding to deduce any general inferences. The following cases are very favourable representatives of others:—

A. School in private house; 40 pupils, of whom the majority are boarders, divided into four classes. Lower classes reading together in English history with care and intelligence. Fair knowledge of facts and dates. Dictation excellent, writing pretty, though often scarcely legible. Elementary arithmetic careful and sound, but knowledge of compound rules meagre; English grammar elementary but intelligent. Higher division consisting of two classes worked answers on paper; arithmetic generally inaccurate; there is no grasp of the meaning or use of rules higher than reduction. Knowledge of English history and geography superficial, but true and exact as far as it goes. An excellent French teacher was giving a dictation lesson in that language, which was written by four of the elder pupils with fair correctness. English grammar and composition very good; but general reading confined to religious books and small compendiums. No science or literature attempted. Memory lessons taken mainly from Mangnal's questions. All the girls have a great number of exercise books, besides copy books and ciphering books. The exercises numerous and exact, though quite disproportioned to the amount learned; great care taken to record with ruled lines and many flourishes the fragmentary facts given in text books about, *e.g.*, lightning conductors, the teak-tree, the Sicilian vespers, mobility, the properties of the atmosphere, and the Pelagian heresy. The head of the school, most anxious to improve her methods, and to know the deficiencies in her school, said that she and her pupils enjoyed the examination much, and would like it repeated.

B. A school for about 40 young children, kept by two ladies, who are devoted to teaching and have unusual gifts for it. Reading taught partly by the simultaneous method, and partly by imitation of the teacher's own style; the result finished, accurate, and quite beautiful. All written exercises done with great precision yet with full understanding of their meaning. Every process in elementary arithmetic explained and understood. The governess regards the teaching of the principles of arithmetic as the chief instrument of mental development, for young children. Children bright and much interested in their work. In the upper class, English grammar and the analysis of simple sentences form the severest exercise, and are pursued very systematically. History and geography are read with interest, but do not take

the form of tasks. About one hour a day is given to needlework. A strict yet kindly discipline prevails throughout the school, and relatively to the ages of the children, no more exact and thoughtful work could be desired. The ladies regard theirs as a preparatory establishment, however, and their pupils leave them at 12 or 13.

C. A high-class and expensive boarding school in a handsome house built for the purpose: 35 pupils taught in two departments, the lower of which comprehends all children below 13 years of age. In this no extras are charged, and no masters are employed, but the rudiments of music, drawing, French, and German, are taught to all alike. One of the heads of the establishment is a German lady, who has devoted great skill and study to her profession, and who teaches modern languages with success. By the time that pupils enter the upper school, it has been ascertained for which of the "accomplishments" each possesses no special taste, and which of them can be further prosecuted with advantage. The principal consults with the parents, and the girls join the masters' classes accordingly. Pains are taken to prevent the sacrifice of general intellectual culture to the subjects so selected. No girl is allowed to devote more than an hour a day to music, or to remain more than an hour at a time at any lesson. The lower department passed an excellent examination in elementary subjects, and particularly in the writing of a sentence from dictation and in the grammatical analysis of its parts. The arithmetic was intelligent and correct, though not far advanced. In the higher department the papers showed a good grammatical knowledge of French, and an excellent beginning had been made in German. Arithmetic had, however, not been carried much further in its principles than in the lower classes, though higher sums were wrought by mechanical rules. The knowledge of history, both of Greece and of our own country, was full and accurate. The girls had read Pope's Homer, and were very familiar with the story of the Iliad. Their themes and other exercises in composition showed much taste and command of language. Several classical English works, *e.g.* the Comus of Milton, had been read, but not critically. The only task work consisted of the rules of grammar, passages of Scripture, and poetical selections. Attention is given to the study of metre, and several of the elder girls had composed respectable English verses on subjects which had been given. In the higher classes one hour per day is permitted to be devoted to ornamental needlework. Drawing is systematically taught by the help of properly graduated exercises. Nothing can be more pleasing than the intellectual aspect of the school; and among the pupils are some in whom a fondness for higher study might easily be developed. But they have no adequate motive for such exertion. They are reading, with sympathy and care, books of general literature and history; but these are exactly the books which, with their tastes, they would be likely to read at home, and without effort. Meanwhile no science, in any form, pure or applied, enters into their course; nor is the analysis of words or sentences carried to the point at which it becomes a logical discipline. It would seem therefore that school life is doing much less than it might to develope the mental resources of the elder scholars, or to introduce them to new paths of inquiry which they would not otherwise pursue.

D. A boarding school for 20 pupils: all domestic arrangements neat and very complete. Great care devoted to elementary subjects, to neat writing, to reading, and the rudiments of arithmetic. Except that the elder girls read a little history no higher instruction is attempted. The governess expresses herself most anxious to introduce other teaching, but complains bitterly of the apathy of parents, and of the way in which they discourage all efforts to do so. The most superficial knowledge of grammar, history, or science, she says, will content the parents, if only the pupils can play on the piano, and draw and paint a little. She finds it most difficult in these circumstances to animate the elder girls with any desire for systematic study. They prefer fancy needlework, partly because it gives them something to show at home, and partly because it wants no mental effort. Even when she succeeds in awakening the interest of scholars above 15 in any pursuit, the parents, most of whom are prosperous manufacturers, interpose objections and criticisms so often, and detain or remove the girls so capriciously, that little or nothing can be done with them. The governess would be very glad to hear that any public measures were

adopted which would make it fashionable among parents to wish for sounder instruction for their daughters.

E. A day school in a town: 25 pupils taken at low rates, and inconveniently crowded into two sitting rooms of a small dwelling house. In the third or lowest class 10 pupils were learning to read and write, and to work simple sums. They had made fair progress and had learned some lists of English towns and found out positions on a map. The first and second classes, consisting of girls from 12 to 15, took paper work in arithmetic, geography, and French. Five could translate a simple French sentence and tell a little about the grammar. None could explain the reason for working a practice or proportion sum, or answer any but the simplest questions on the meanings of words. The governess explains to me that all the lessons are committed to memory; the columns of spelling, the definitions and rules given in Murray's grammar; with some lists of historians, poets, and constellations, from a small miscellaneous manual of which about half a page is given at a time for a task. There is also a little catechism of Bible history and geography in use, from which small portions are set as memory lessons twice a week. The teacher's whole time is occupied in hearing the pupils repeat their lessons one by one, and in overlooking their copy books and ciphering books and grammar exercises. The only questions which are ever asked are the printed questions appended to some of the text books. All the books in use are cheap and small, and give merely the outlines of information, and lists of technical and other names. The governess finds it very difficult to obtain books which are not too costly for the parents to buy willingly. As the knowledge obtained from these little manuals is not supplemented by any other teaching or reading, there is a total absence of life or interest in the school-work, and very little mental exercise of any kind. The governess is laborious and anxious, but she has no conception of any mode of teaching except that of setting lessons, and she has evidently never seen a good school. She complains of the great difficulty of keeping pupils to a proper age, and of the frequent interruptions to which their attendance is subjected.

Smallness of girls' schools.

The first thing noticeable about girls' schools is the fact that they are more numerous and very much smaller than those for boys. Of nearly 80 schools, whose statistics I obtained, only 5 contained more than 40 scholars, including both boarders and day pupils; 15 others contained less than 40, but more than 30, while all the rest were schools of less than 30 pupils. The average number in the ladies' schools is about 25.* Into the reasons for this I need not enter at length. There is a feeling among parents that a small private school is more like a home than a large one; and that in it the pupils are likely to obtain more tenderness and attention, and a more careful regard to individual peculiarities. And the susceptibilities of parents in regard to the nature of the associations formed by their children are far more alive in the case of daughters than of sons. A professional man does not like his daughter to attend a school in which the children of tradesmen are admitted, although he would probably entertain less objection to send his son to be educated at a grammar school with boys of all ranks. Perhaps this is not to be wondered at. At any rate all the sharp lines of demarcation which divide society into classes, and all the jealousies and suspicions which help to keep these classes apart, are seen in their fullest operation in girls' schools. The use of such words as

* It is not always easy to obtain even so simple a fact as the number in a school. One governess in reply to my question, hoped that I would not think her superstitious; but she never *counted* her pupils: she had a feeling that it was unlucky to do so.

"exclusive," "genteel," and "limited" in advertisements clearly indicates the extent to which governesses recognize the maintenance of such distinctions in schools, and the importance which parents are generally supposed to attach to these distinctions. One lady prides herself on taking pupils exclusively from "county families," another draws the line at wholesale traders, and refuses to receive the daughter of a shopkeeper. Thus each school is obliged to content itself with pupils of a particular social grade. When once this is fixed it is next to impossible for the mistress to get a new pupil from a family which considers itself to belong to a higher *stratum*, while the mistress not unfrequently promises the parents that she will not receive pupils from a lower.

To these reasons it must be added that the care and administration of a large school make a formidable task to a woman, and that as a rule she shrinks from it. She has seldom any professional ambition, any family to provide for, or any strong desire to make money. Hence she is generally content with the smallest number of pupils, out of whom she can contrive to get a comfortable maintenance; and her notion of success is not to get a larger school, but to obtain a smaller number from a higher rank, and to be able to charge more.

Their cost.

One obvious consequence of the smallness of the schools is that they are generally much more expensive than those for boys. They ought to be less so, seeing that women who do a given amount of work are satisfied with a smaller remuneration than men; and that the expenses of a household consisting entirely of female inmates need not be so great. But relatively to the advantages purchased, and to the teaching power employed, much more is always charged for girls than for boys. If a lady is to obtain even a humble livelihood out of the profits on 20 or 25 pupils she must make a large demand on each. Accordingly all the means, whereby the bill can be increased, the extra charges to which I have referred before, as swelling the total account in boarding establishments for the other sex, are to be found in still larger proportion in "ladies' schools." I will give one or two examples of this:—

FOUR COPIES of the HIGHEST BILL, that is, for Elder Pupils.

A.	£	s.	d.
Board and general instruction	63	0	0
French	6	6	0
Piano	8	8	0
Music	1	11	0
Drawing	6	6	0
Materials	0	18	0
Drawing (one quarter)	1	11	6
Use of pianos	1	0	0
Seat in church	1	0	0
Laundress	4	0	0
	£94	6	6

B.	£	s.	d.
Board and instruction, including English, French, and calisthenic exercises	52	10	0
Music	8	8	0
Singing	6	6	0
German	6	6	0
Drawing and painting	8	8	0
Dancing	6	6	0
Library, piano, and church seat	2	17	0
Music and stationery	2	10	0
Drawing materials	2	0	0
Laundress	3	3	0
	£98	14	0

C.	£	s.	d.
Board and instruction in English	26	5	0
Music	3	3	0
Singing	2	2	0
French	3	3	0
Drawing	3	3	0
Dancing	3	3	0
Harp lessons	4	19	0
Washing	2	2	0
Stationery, pew rent, &c.	1	1	0
New music	3	6	0
Drawing materials	0	14	0
Materials for fancy work	6	16	0
	£59	17	0

D.	£	s.	d.
Board	23	2	0
Instruction in English and pencil drawing	4	4	0
French (at half charge for one year)	2	2	0
Music (for three quarters)	3	3	0
Use of piano.	0	10	0
Twelve pieces of music	1	6	0
Dancing (for half quarter)	0	10	6
Calisthenics (half a year)	0	15	0
Use of books	0	3	7
Exercise and copy books	0	7	6
Stationery	0	3	0
Drawing materials	0	11	0
Laundress	2	2	0
	£38	19	7

TWO COPIES of LOWEST SCHOOL BILL, for Younger Pupils.

A.	£	s.	d.
Board and tuition	36	15	0
Pianoforte	8	4	2
Writing and arithmetic	3	3	0
Stationery	0	11	0
Use of piano, books	3	3	0
Laundress	4	4	0
Sundries	1	5	0
	£57	0	7

B.	£	s.	d.
Board and instruction	18	0	0
Music	3	0	0
French	3	0	0
Drawing	3	0	0
Dancing	2	0	0
Laundress	2	0	0
Fancy work	0	10	0
Stationery	0	6	0
Use of books	0	5	0
Use of piano	0	5	0
	£32	6	0

COPIES of SCHOOL BILLS of DAY SCHOLARS only.

A.	£	s.	d.
General school work	4	4	0
French	3	0	0
Music	4	4	0
Drawing	3	3	0
Astronomy and the use of the globes	1	4	0
Use of piano	0	18	0
Pens and ink	0	10	0
	£16	6	0

B.	£	s.	d.
Instruction	10	10	0
Music	6	6	0
New music	1	17	0
Lectures	0	10	6
Various school books	1	18	0
Stationery	0	9	6
	£21	11	6

It is unnecessary to give other examples, since there is a strong resemblance between the bills of various schools. It may be said generally that in boarding schools the nominal charge for board and instruction is supplemented by extras varying from one-half to three-fourths of its entire amount, while in day schools in which a charge is made for instruction only, the extras nearly always amount to about twice that sum.

Thus one-third of the whole sum paid for education, apart from boarding, is for "general school work," and two-thirds for the extras or "accomplishments." Parents appear not unwilling to meet these charges, which I believe represent only too accurately the estimate generally formed by mothers, of the relative importance of

the general education of a girl as compared with the "accomplishments;" and considering how girls' schools are generally constituted, it cannot be said that the charges are excessive. The thing purchased is indeed very dear at the price; but nobody concerned in the transaction is well or even adequately paid. A lady who has a house, and 15 or 20 scholars, is often assisted by a resident governess, to whom she pays 20*l.* or 25*l.* a year; by a Frenchwoman, or a Swiss, who gives lessons for certain hours a day at a still lower rate of remuneration; and by one or two masters who attend and teach music, arithmetic, or dancing; receiving as payment a portion of the separate fees paid by the pupils for those subjects. The total income of the master from this source may vary from 2*s.* 6*d.* to 10*s.* for each visit, according to circumstances. When these deductions have been made, the net sum available for the principal teacher is very small; and unless it were increased by indirect profits on other items,* would scarcely suffice for decent maintenance.

Nothing can well be more extravagant than the waste of money, and of educational resources in these small schools. There is little life, no collective instruction, and nothing to call forth the best powers of either teacher or learner, in a school where each class consists of two or three pupils only. Even if a teacher were highly qualified she would in time grow dispirited and mechanical, under the sense that she was frittering away her strength in small efforts, and producing results so insignificant in proportion to them.

Qualification of teachers.

But the teachers are *not* highly qualified. Among the principals of the schools the majority have undertaken the business of teaching as an after-thought, and have not deliberately adopted the profession from choice. Our social arrangements offer to educated women few careers in which an honourable livelihood is to be earned; and it follows that those few are overcrowded. It is a special misfortune for the profession of teaching that it is supposed to be "genteel;" and that it therefore attracts to itself a number of women who wish to get a living, and who are sensitive as to any loss of social position, but who possess no other qualifications for the work which they undertake. The number of governesses who have been educated with a view to the work, and who have con-

* What are called the "master's terms" are generally in excess of the sums actually paid to the visiting teachers, who by a private arrangement agree to accept a certain proportion only of the four or six guineas paid by each pupil. School books and stationery are obtainable by teachers at a reduction of at least 20 per cent., but are charged at full price to parents. The sums generally charged for printed music, are very extravagant. The true retail price of printed music, is just half the nominal or published price. All purchasers know that the newest music is always obtainable in shops at half-price. To teachers, a further deduction of 25 per cent. is regularly allowed. So that a song which costs the music master 9*d.* and is sold in retail shops for 1*s.*, is charged in the parents bill 2*s.*; this sum having been printed on the outside, not for the purpose of general sale, but solely in order to conciliate the professors of music, and to give to them the opportunity of realizing a profit of about 160 per cent. on their outlay. The number of exercise books purchased in many schools is needlessly large. I have seen little girls of 11, with from 10 to 20 neatly ruled books, one for each department of the school work, and all in use at the same time. Sometimes the effect of this arrangement is more visible in the stationery account than in the improvement of the pupils.

templated the adoption of it as a profession, is very small; not more, as far as I can judge, than six or seven per cent. There are indeed many ladies in this district who having been led to accept the position of teachers have brought great natural talents and aptitude to bear upon their work, and have endeavoured by sedulous study to qualify themselves for it. But efforts of this sort, however conscientious, seldom compensate for the lack of early cultivation, or for that complete ignorance of the methods and principles of education which characterizes so large a proportion of school-mistresses. It constantly happens that the principal of the school restricts herself to the teaching of some two or three subjects, and is not capable of taking charge of the general education of the pupils, still less of judging how far it would be well to extend the ordinary course, or of suggesting the subjects which might properly be introduced into it. This deficiency has to be compensated by the employment of additional teachers, and it thus happens that the staff of teachers, though certainly not more efficient, is generally larger, relatively to the numbers, than in boys' schools.

General preference for boarding schools.

Since larger profits are obtainable from boarders than from day scholars,* it becomes obviously the interest of a governess to have as many as she can. Hence boarders generally receive the first attention; as they increase in number a schoolmistress is generally glad to discourage the attendance of day scholars; and if possible she excludes them altogether. It is often quoted as a great allurement to parents who desire a "select" school, that no day scholars are admitted. It has thus come to pass that it is considered by the middle classes more respectable to be a boarder than a day scholar. And as a rule the children who attend as day pupils are inferior in social position to boarders. There are several obvious reasons for the preference, on the part of parents who can afford it, in favour of boarding schools. The inconvenience of daily journeys to and from home, especially where the distance is great, are of some importance to girls. The risk of unsuitable associations is also somewhat greater in a day school. The education of a boarder is less liable to interruption, and is generally more systematic than that of a day scholar. In almost all cases in which I have found the two classes of pupils together in one school, the boarders have passed the best examination. These are not, to my mind, however, reasons for a strong preference of boarding over day schools for girls. A boy has something to learn in intercourse with boys, which he could not learn at home. The discipline of a great school prepares him to encounter some of the difficulties of active life, and hardens him against many of the dangers of a world in which men must contend with men. But a girl gains little or nothing from this kind of experience. An establishment of a semi-conventual kind in which girls see each other only, does not resemble any world which they are ever likely to enter; and I cannot find that there

* The Income Tax Commissioners generally allow governesses to deduct from the annual sum paid by each boarder the sum of 18*l.* as the cost price of her board and lodging. All beyond this is regarded as income.

are any moral advantages in the boarding school system to compensate for the evil of removing a girl from the far more healthy and natural atmosphere of an orderly home, in which there are father, mother, and brothers. If, indeed, the alternative be a home of indulgence or caprice, the boarding school may be preferred, not otherwise. I cannot doubt that good and well-regulated day schools for girls would meet a great want, especially in the principal towns. The education in these might be much cheaper, and might consequently be prolonged to a later age. If they were on a larger scale than the average girls' schools, teachers of superior qualifications might be obtained for them. And if the arrangements in the homes of the middle classes were such as to allow of the systematic preparation of home lessons, the education of a girl would not suffer by the fact that she attended a day school. At present, between the two influences,—of parents who prefer to rid themselves of all share in superintending their daughters' instruction, and of governesses, whose interests lead them to recommend the boarding school system,—the opinion of the public in favour of that plan is not unbiassed and cannot be regarded as conclusive.

The employment of masters.

There is great diversity of opinion among ladies as to the expediency of employing masters in girls' schools. On the whole a very considerable majority of both teachers and parents testify to me in favour of the practice, and the importance generally attached to it may be judged of from prospectuses, in which it is always claimed as a special merit, that masters are engaged to give lessons on a great variety of subjects. Two reasons are generally assigned for this preference: the one that a man receives more attention, and enforces better discipline in a class of girls; the other that he is more likely than a governess to understand his subject, and to give a good lesson on it. Since women themselves urge these reasons it is difficult to dispute them. There is no doubt that in a school, where the discipline is loose and dawdling, the occasional visit of a stranger excites interest, and enforces unusual attention. It is found that many girls will prepare exercises with greater exactness and make greater efforts for a master than for one of the ordinary teachers of a school. Moreover, it is very easy for an occasional teacher, especially if he has a stronger will and a more exacting manner, to gain more than a fair proportion of the pupil's time for the preparation of his own special subject, and to achieve a higher standard of excellence in it, at the expense of her general education. And it is undoubtedly true that a larger number of men than of women can be found qualified for the business of teaching, at least as far as knowledge of the subject to be taught is concerned.

But if governesses were better instructed the need for employing masters would almost wholly disappear. At present the general disposition to engage them in girls' schools simply amounts to an admission that the mistresses are imperfectly trained. Of two persons, a man and a woman, who have an equally accurate acquaintance with a given subject, it may fairly be assumed that the

woman is likely to be the better teacher. All the *natural* gifts which go so far to make a good teacher she possesses in a high degree. In sympathy with learners, in the imaginative faculty which helps her to see what is going on in their minds, in the tact which seizes upon the happiest way to remove a difficulty, or to present a truth, in insight into character, in patience, and in kindness, she is likely to excel him. A larger proportion of women than of men may be said to have been born teachers, and to be specially gifted by nature with the art of communicating what they know. It is because, as a rule, women *do not know* thoroughly the subjects which are included even in the narrow and pretentious curriculum of the ordinary ladies' schools, that they so often avail themselves of the services of masters. Other reasons are often assigned, but as far as I have been able to judge, this is the true reason, even when it is least avowed. As to the increased authority possessed by a man, it is not necessary to say much. Authority in a school is mainly dependent on three things: on the personal character of the teacher; on the resolute way in which he exacts obedience; and on the amount of knowledge which he is known to possess. In regard to the first and second of these the mistress is at least as likely to obtain influence as a man. If she proved equal to him or was even considered to be equal to him in the third requirement, her authority would be quite as great. In many schools I have been informed that a man is employed to teach arithmetic, or English grammar, or composition, or French, or writing, or elocution; but after examining the scholars I have never found that any one of these subjects was better taught than in other schools where there was a lady teacher who understood her business. Indeed the highest excellence which I have tested in every one of these subjects has been attained in schools where none but female teachers were employed.

In drawing, the best results certainly occur in schools where the subject is taught by a master. And whenever lectures are given, or experimental science taught, the services of a man seem necessary. In music and dancing, too, it seems to be generally admitted that progress is more rapid, *cæteris paribus*, when the art is taught by a master. With these exceptions, however, my examination of the schools has left on me a strong impression, that for all the ordinary intellectual work of a school, women are more appropriate teachers for girls than men; and that *up to the measure of their own knowledge* they can always teach with at least equal skill and effect.

Attainments of girls, as compared with those of boys.

I am confirmed in this impression by seeing how exceedingly well little girls are often instructed in all the matters which lie within the range of a governess's acquirements. Up to 12 years of age, I find the knowledge and intelligence in the best of the ladies' schools, superior to that observable in boys' schools of similar standing. The girls read better. They express themselves in writing with more taste and correctness. They often evince great quickness in arithmetic, and at least as clear an understanding of the *rationale* of the elementary rules, as is to be found in the best schools for boys. Their knowledge of history

and geography is often greater; while the clearness with which they perceive the meanings of the words, and their general interest in reading, are decidedly superior. But it is among pupils above the age of 12 that the difference is most striking. At this point a girl becomes subject to many influences which tend to check her improvement. She is told that Latin is not a feminine acquirement; that arithmetic and mathematics are only fit for boys; that science is not useful to a woman; and that she must begin to devote her chief attention to "ladylike accomplishments." Any fondness she may have conceived for the pursuit of other studies is frowned down or repressed; and it is not wonderful if she readily acquiesces in a theory of education so agreeable, and so entirely different from that which is set before her brothers of a similar age.

The current belief that girls have no capacity for higher study:

It is common for governesses to explain the condition of their higher classes, by saying that girls have no capacity for close and serious study, or "no head for mathematics." In this they do injustice to their pupils. Among girls as among boys are of course some whose minds fasten more readily on truth in an abstract, and others in a concrete form; some whose memory is strong, but whose power of judging or of reasoning is weak, and *vice versâ*. But I cannot find that an average class of girls contains a smaller number able to study Latin or mathematics to good purpose, than one of boys. In the very rare cases in which these subjects are taught to girls, I have noticed that they excited quite as much interest, and that the proficiency attained was quite as great, age for age, as in good grammar schools. In the still rarer cases, in which I have found lady teachers understanding these subjects, I have been told that they experienced great pleasure and satisfaction in teaching them. Those governesses whose own course of education has included any branch of learning or science, testify strongly to the worth and appropriateness of that study as a means of education for girls. And no experience of mine justifies me in asserting, with regard to any one department of useful investigation or serious thought, that it is beyond the capacity of a girl, or unsuited to her intellectual needs. Some day perhaps we may be in a position to map out the whole region of human knowledge, and to say how much of it is masculine, and how much feminine. At present such an attempt would at least be premature. The *data* are not yet before us, and the existing state of schools proves absolutely nothing, as to what girls could or could not do, if they were properly encouraged and taught. It is true that there are many studies which they do not care about, and many more which are not brought under their notice. But it is always possible to assign some other reason for this state of things, than the mental incapacity of the pupil, or her inherent unfitness for the love or the pursuit of truth.

Or that it is useless to them.

But among many governesses, who do not urge any want of ability for higher learning on the part of their pupils, there is a strong feeling that there is no necessity or use for it. And this is a far graver and more prevalent difficulty. "It is our aim to form

the character of our pupils," says one lady to me; "we do not care so much about attainments." Another says that "she con- "siders lady-like manners and deportment far more important than "'learning.'" Another turns round upon me archly and says: "You know that gentlemen do not like learned ladies; our great "aim is to make the young people attractive in society, and if we "can do that, we are satisfied." There is here a convenient assumption, that the formation of the moral character is somehow an alternative to the improvement of the understanding, and that, if either is gained, it must be at the expense of the other. But I have been unable to learn that the schoolmistress has any better mode of forming the moral character of a girl than by withdrawing her mind from what is frivolous, and kindling her interest in serious and thoughtful study. I cannot find that moral instruction *per se* comes to much when unaccompanied with good general teaching. Still less is it true that the schools in which the intellectual aim is highest, show any deficiency in good breeding. It happens that the finest manners I ever saw among young people,—the most perfect self-possession, modesty, and freedom from affectation, were in a class of girls who were brought to me to demonstrate a proposition in Euclid. It would be a strange commentary on our present system of education if it could be proved that the studies which are supposed to elevate and refine men, had an opposite effect on the other sex. But though unproved, and probably grossly untrue, there are many who believe it. It is difficult to measure the harm which is done by schoolmistresses, who, in the hearing of their pupils, speak slightingly of mental cultivation, and set before them as the great aim of life to be attractive and to make conquests.* And the mischief is scarcely less that is done by teachers who are too right-minded to express it in words; but who half unconsciously accept it, and who let their pupils see that they accept it, as the guiding theory of their educational plans. It is the existence of this theory which encourages persons to become governesses on the strength of their correct and severe deportment, of their genteel connexions, and of a certain pedantic precision in speech, which is specially affected by those who possess scarcely any other qualification for the teacher's work. Out of this, too, grows the silliness and mental vacuity which too often characterize the pupils, and the low and dishonouring view which they take of the worth of knowledge in relation to the needs of their future life.

The education not specially directed to the duties of womanhood.

Nothing is more common than to hear the difference in the future destiny of boys and girls assigned as a reason for a difference in the character and extent of their intellectual training. A girl is fated to be a wife and a mother, and must therefore be educated for domestic life. But I cannot find that any part of the training given in ladies' schools educates them for domestic life,

* "Sin not against your daughters, by showing or recommending even indirectly, "any excellence they may possess—be it art, science, or the sanctuary of the heart—as "a lure to men, or a bait for catching a husband; to do so is truly to shoot wild fowl "with diamonds, or to knock down fruit with a sceptre."—JEAN PAUL RICHTER.

or prepares them for duties which are supposed to be especially womanly. I am repeatedly told that cooking, the government of servants, the superintendence of their work, the right management of the purse, and the power to economise all the resources of a household, are of more importance to a girl than learning. All this is confessedly true. *But then these things are not taught in schools.* Nor are the laws of health, the elements of chemistry, the physiology which would be helpful in the care of children, the political economy which would preserve ladies from mistakes in dealing with the poor; nor any, in short, of those studies which seem to stand in a close relation to the work a woman has to do in the world. Everywhere the fact that the pupil is to become a woman and not a man operates upon her course of study negatively, not positively. It deprives her of the kind of teaching which boys have, but it gives her little or nothing in exchange. It certainly does not give to her any exceptional teaching adapted to her career as a woman.

And it may well be doubted whether such exceptional instruction could be given with advantage. Considering how the teaching staff of a girls' school is generally constituted, I think it very unlikely that a course of lessons on wifely and household duties, or on the best mode of dealing with the sick, the young, or the poor, would serve any useful purpose. Such efforts, if made, would probably share the fate of the many futile attempts in boys' schools to adapt the teaching to the mercantile or professional life of the pupil. The best teachers are abandoning such attempts. They attend less to a pupil's special calling, and more and more to his general capacity. It is not by thinking of the pupil as a future manufacturer, or master, or even as a husband and father, that the best systems of instruction have been devised for boys; but by seeking to develope to their full extent the highest powers the pupil possesses. It is the human, not necessarily the masculine character, which the best teachers try to improve in youth,— the love of knowledge, the power of acquiring it, and the art of retaining and of wisely employing it. And if once it were admitted, that relatively to the duties of a woman's life, intellectual culture would be as useful and appropriate as to a man, the same principle would probably be adopted by teachers in girls' schools.

The general character of the instruction given in girls' schools.

Meanwhile, it is no exaggeration to say, that in the mass of them the intellectual aims are very low, and the attainments are still lower than the aims. Many governesses who are working hard and conscientiously seeking to do their best, are scarcely aware of the stagnation of mind which exists around them, nor of the use which might be made of the materials in their hands if proper methods were employed. They have no standard of comparison. They know little or nothing of what is being done in schools under skilled teachers; and their pupils are subject to no examination or other tests by which deficiencies might be revealed. The educational theories of a governess are necessarily suited to her circumstances. If she has never studied or taught beyond a certain range of subjects, everything beyond that range seems unnecessary.

If she only knows one method of teaching a given subject, that method seems to her the best. By a sort of happy intuition an ingenious method of teaching is now and then discovered; but this is rare, and many of the best results attained in ladies' schools are gained at a disproportionate expenditure of labour and time.

Reading.

In three or four particulars the average attainments in girls' schools are higher than in those for boys of corresponding age. The superiority of the reading is very marked, but this may be accounted for by the greater flexibility of voice, and the quicker and finer perception of the pupils, rather than by any superiority in the methods of teaching. Of elocution or any attempt to read in a demonstrative or dramatic manner, I have only heard one or two examples, and these were in schools in which an elocution master was employed. It certainly seemed to possess no advantage over the simple and unaffected reading which I generally hear in schools when the teacher herself is a lady-like and intelligent woman. In the preparation of English exercises there is also an evident superiority over boys' schools. Governesses teach English grammar better than masters, because they have more faith in it; and, as a rule, the exercises they give in English composition appear to me to be more judicious and better adapted to their purpose. Essay writing is not attempted so soon, nor until a certain proficiency has been attained in the narration of a simple story; and when attempted the subjects chosen are generally less abstract and less remote from the sphere of the learner's own experience.

History and chronology.

History also is a subject in which girls often excel. In the best schools I have found the higher classes reading Macaulay or Hume with much intelligence and relish, and making very clever abstracts or paraphrases of the most notable passages. Yet there is no more singular example of the confusion between means and ends than the excessive attention given in many girls' schools to chronology as a separate study. The "regal table" constitutes a distinct lesson in many schools, and systems of metrical chronology or mnemonic lines and syllables are in great favour with lady teachers. The assumption is that dates are themselves very important facts, quite apart from any knowledge of the events to which they belong. But it is doubtful whether a date has any value, except as a means of localizing and fixing a fact which has once been studied and understood. The apparatus by which chronology is learned is often very cumbrous. Verses are so constructed that the initial letters of the words give the date of the event they record; but it often happens that the words have been so tortured for this purpose that no meaning is left in them; and I have met with pupils who could give a date after reciting the verses, but who, owing to the obscurity of the language, could not tell to what event the date referred. Not unfrequently, I have met with elder pupils or ladies after leaving school, whose memory retained the queer mnemonic syllables, or the doggrel rhymes, but who had forgotten the key.

Holy Scripture.

It is right to add, that in knowledge of the contents of Holy

Scripture, the girls in private schools often excel. There is but little dogmatic teaching of creeds or articles, and even the Church Catechism is seldom taught, except to boarders, and then only when the pupils belong to Church of England families. But in most schools the Bible is diligently read as a lesson, and portions of it are committed to memory. It is very common also to supplement the Bible lesson, by the study of some catechism or compendium of Scripture history; and by the preparation of written exercises on the characters or events described in the Bible. Many governesses engage a clergyman or other minister to give a weekly lecture on a religious subject; but even when this is not done, I have noticed that much careful attention is generally devoted to the religious knowledge.

Common faults in girls' education.

With these exceptions, the general instruction in girls' schools (apart of course from feminine accomplishments) appears to me to be clearly below that reached in boys' schools of corresponding standing. It seems an ungracious task to record the chief faults of the current education in girls' schools, but there are two or three of them which are too significant to be passed over.

Its narrowness.

The course of instruction is very narrow. It leaves many of the pupil's best faculties wholly unused. It excludes many topics of great interest and importance from her view, and teaches her at least indirectly, that these do not concern her. The constitution of states and of society, the form of our government, the state of ancient nations, the sources of wealth, the meaning of natural phenomena, the whole range and application of mathematical truth, are generally presumed to be beyond her ken. In boys' schools it is true these things are often neglected; but they are always treated as things worth knowing; and steps more or less halting and unsatisfactory are made towards them. But with a girl, their importance is not even recognized, and the influence of school upon her mind is, as far as it goes, to discourage her from attempting to understand them.

Its unscientific character.

And the current education in girls' schools is wholly unscientific. Beyond the mere mechanical arts of reading, writing, needlework, and dancing, every subject of school study has its scientific as well as its practical aspect, and is capable of being pursued not merely as a piece of knowledge to be acquired, but as a body of truth to be systematically handled and understood. But it is this latter view of knowledge which is so generally absent from girls' schools. Whatever is learned is learned empirically. In studying French the sole object is to pronounce and speak the language, and the grammar is taught so far only as is thought necessary for this purpose. In learning English, the principal object aimed at is to acquire "the art of speaking and writing the language with propriety." But of grammar as a science, I find little or no trace in ladies' schools. No attempt is made to teach grammar for its own sake, or to call attention to the philosophy of its rules. A boy who learns Latin, even in a clumsy way, is forced to attend to grammar *per se;* and learns, however dimly, that there *are* laws in human speech, and principles which underlie the structure of

words and sentences. But there is nothing analogous to this in girls' schools. So of arithmetic, they proceed far enough to manipulate a few figures, and to get answers to sums. But at the very point at which arithmetic begins to be treated as a science in the best boys' schools, a girl drops the subject altogether. It is not only of the higher arithmetic and of algebra, but of the reasons which justify the processes in the lower arithmetic that she is frequently ignorant. Her attention is never directed to them. She can seldom explain a rule, or interpret a formula, or refer a particular example to a general law. Her geometry, if learned at all, is drawing and construction of figures; not demonstration. And it is equally true of any other branch of mathematics, which may intrude itself into her course: that however pursued it is never studied mathematically.

Astronomy and the "use of the globes."

Astronomy and the "use of the globes," by some curious law, seem to be recognized as constituting the one department of science specially interesting to girls. Not unfrequently, a special charge is made for lessons on it; and teachers who disapprove of Latin and of Euclid as mannish and unfeminine studies, think it a useful thing for girls to learn the names of constellations, and to make calculations as to the altitude of stars, or the time at different places in the world, when it is 12 o'clock at Greenwich. But of astronomy as a science, it is extremely rare to find that girls know anything. Many of them are making computations of a technical kind before they know the most elementary truths about the relative position of planets and fixed stars to our earth; and before the patent absurdity of representing the heavens and the earth by a pair of solid globes has been removed, or made intelligible by explanation. Few things are sadder than to see how the sublimest of all physical sciences is vulgarized in ladies' schools. No subject, if properly taught, is better calculated to exalt the imagination and to kindle large thoughts in a pupil's mind. Yet all the grandeur and vastness are eliminated from the study of astronomy as commonly pursued; and pupils whose attention has never been directed to any one of the great laws by which the universe is governed, think they are learning astronomy when they are twisting a globe round and round, and solving a few problems in latitude and longitude.

Geography.

Geography also is a favourite subject with teachers, chiefly, I believe, because in it the maximum of visible result is attainable at the smallest expenditure of teaching power. Lists of cities, of mountains, and of rivers are lessons easy to set, if hard to learn; and as they do not appeal in any way to the understanding, require none but routine methods of hearing and testing. A map, too, though not without a real value, if it is the record of geographical facts which have been well learned, is a performance too often over-estimated. The knowledge obtained is very inadequate to the time spent in drawing it, especially when it is coloured and ornamented for exhibition at home. In other branches, the same tendency is observable in ladies' schools, to be content with names, lists, the nomenclature of science, rather than

science itself. I have seen girls learning by heart the wonderful terminology of the Linnean classification, to whom the very elements of vegetable physiology were unknown. Others learn from a catechism the meaning of such words as divisibility, inertia, and impenetrability, who know nothing of the physical facts of which these words are the representatives. In some schools Joyce's scientific dialogues are read piecemeal, and furnish partial explanations of particular phenomena, such as the boiling of water, or the rising of mercury in a barometer. Information more or less scanty, about scientific terms and facts, is not uncommon in schools; but the study of a science as a science *i. e.*, as an organized *method* of pursuing truth, as a systematic investigation of the laws or principles by which facts are held together, is practically unknown. I have never once found, in a girls' school, that a really scientific treatise, however elementary or limited to one subject, had been thoroughly mastered.

Scientific lectures.

Yet it would not be admitted by teachers that science is absent from their curriculum. "My young people," said one lady to me, "take great interest in science. We have a lecturer who comes "weekly during the season, and gives us courses on astronomy, "heraldry, botany, and architecture. Sometimes, too, when it "is fine, they go out and pluck flowers, and afterwards dissect "them, and have a lesson on their parts." I found, on inquiry, that this arrangement prevailed at several superior schools in the district; and there are two or three gentlemen of real ability and good local reputation, who itinerate among the ladies' schools, to give lectures of this kind. Several of these lecturers favoured me with copies of their syllabus of lectures, and on one or two occasions I was permitted to be present. The illustrations were numerous, the subject interesting, and the whole lecture graceful and gentlemanlike, and plentifully garnished with the poetical and other illustrations, supposed to be suited to a feminine audience. The defect of the lecture was, that it was utterly unintelligible to little girls, that it presupposed an amount of previous knowledge which they did not possess; and that there was, throughout, an absence of precision of statement, of recapitulation, of questioning, or of any means of fastening the lecturer's statements on the memory. In one case I took an opportunity a few days afterwards to question the pupils, and found that little beyond the vaguest impressions had been left on their minds respecting the subject taught. Indeed, lecturers have more than once expressed to me their own regret that they had no time at the beginning of one lecture to put questions on the contents of the last; and that the written summaries prepared by some of the pupils were only voluntary and occasional efforts.

Now here was a very well-intended effort to improve the character of the teaching. Thoughtful governesses are aware that there is something small and petty in the teaching of Brewer's Guide or Mangnal's Questions; that it gives scraps of detail only, and that something more is wanted to impart an appetite for scientific knowledge. They are not quite clear as to what is

wanted, but as an expedient they engage the services of a popular lecturer, who shoots far above the heads of young girls with poetic generalizations about science, and lightly skims over the surface of great subjects, but who does not insist on detail of any kind. In lectures of this sort there is little or no teaching: they bear no relation to the studies pursued in the interval; they are supplemented by no regular reading; they are tested by no examinations. The day of lecture is, however, looked forward to as an event; other lessons are put away; dress is specially attended to; and the young ladies ranged in close order sit and smile rather as spectators at a festal exhibition than as students: here and there it may be hoped that some pupil is interested and encouraged to pursue the subject farther; but I cannot express my sense of the uselessness of such displays to average pupils, nor of the meretricious character of a course of instruction which professes to explain heraldry, architecture, or botany, to young girls of 13 or 14 in six lectures.

The mode of teaching rarely disciplinal.

It is this easy, pleasant, superficial style of teaching which vitiates so much of the work in girls' schools. Up to a certain point, while the teaching turns upon those essentials which are common to good schools of both sexes, the work required of girls is not less systematic than in boys' schools. But beyond this point much of the teaching is aimless and desultory, and turns upon subjects which are pursued in a half-hearted way. The course of instruction for elder pupils seems to me especially defective; there is nothing bracing or disciplinal in it. No part of it challenges the learner's close attention* or calls upon her for the concentration of all her powers. There are few intellectual difficulties to master. The higher or philosophical aspect of school studies is never presented to her. She is often interested in literature, and reads Shakespeare or Milton with pleasure; but she is never invited to study a poem critically, to examine its archaic words, to hunt out all its allusions, or exhaust its meaning. Even in the best schools the highest ideal seems to be to produce "well-informed women," but it does not enter into the scheme to make them thinkers, or to encourage the pursuit of truth as truth. And if the reproach be

* A very eminent authoress, lately deceased, whose counsel I asked on this point, told me frankly that she did not think it desirable for a girl to learn to concentrate her attention on one subject at a time. The success of a man's life, indeed, she said, depended much on his power of doing this. Moreover, all the arrangements of society assume that he has business which must not be interrupted; he shuts himself up in his study, and whether he is doing little or much, it is a sin to disturb him. But a woman's usefulness depends on her power of diffusing herself, and making her influence felt at a number of points at once. She cannot withdraw herself to a study. Her place is in the drawing-room, in the midst of others, within everyone's call, and at the ready disposal of a number of claimants, whose demands, though separately trifling, are collectively important. You would only make her unhappy by giving her the habit of fastening her intellectual powers on one thing at a time. I think it right thus to mention Mrs. Gaskell's high authority for a doctrine which I disapprove. However multitudinous a man's duties may be, he surely does all of them the better, if he possess the power of bringing his whole faculty to bear upon each of them in succession. He is none the less qualified to do small things, because he has a reserved power of doing great things when occasion requires. If there is anything in the circumstances of the life of any of us, man or woman, which tends to dissipate and waste our intellectual powers and make us incapable of serious thought, then there is all the more reason why our education should correct this tendency.

just that women do not reason accurately, and that their knowledge, even when they possess it, is deficient in organic unity, in coherence, and in depth; there is no need to look for any recondite explanation of the fact. The state of the schools in which they are educated sufficiently explains it.

Needlework.

It would not be right, however, to keep out of view the two or three subjects which are taught in girls' schools exclusively, and which might be supposed to furnish a reasonable pretext for the general omission of intellectual training. Needlework is obviously one of these. It is sometimes neglected even in establishments of some pretension, but in a clear majority of schools it occupies a good deal of time. The extent to which it is necessary to devote time to it may be judged of by a comparison of the middle class schools with the schools for the poor, of which I have had occasion to examine a great many in this district. It is well known that in every such school to which girls are admitted the Committee of Council insist on regular instruction in needlework as an indispensable condition of receiving a grant. About an hour every day is commonly devoted to this task, and as all the children do not work at once, each is probably engaged on an average about three hours in the week in it. Among half-time scholars—girls between eight and thirteen who are employed in factories for half of every day,—the whole time is somewhat less, and scarcely amounts to two hours per week. Yet girls in such schools usually acquire the power of performing all ordinary kinds of plain sewing by the age of 12; and in the West Riding the specimens prepared by them at that age are often noticeable for their great neatness and beauty. A pupil teacher by the age of 15 is generally proficient enough in the art of sewing, fixing, and cutting out, to be able to make her own garments, and, meanwhile, she is expected to have made regular progress in her studies and to have been closely engaged for two years in assisting the mistress. It does not therefore seem necessary that the mental improvement of children in a higher rank of life should be very seriously hindered by the claims of needlework. For although it is an important art for every woman to acquire, its importance does not become greater as we ascend into the class in which ladies are relieved by the dressmaker and the sewing-machine from the necessity of manual labour; and I cannot find that the art of sewing, when once acquired, is one in which incessant and toilsome practice is needed, as in music or in painting, in order to "keep the hand in" or to attain excellence. If time is wasted in ladies' schools on needlework, it is upon Berlin work, on *crochet*, or on other forms of what is designated with curious infelicity "fancy-work;" not upon the employments which are helpful either for the direction or criticism of household needlework. Some governesses have told me, with great concern, that their elder pupils were too much engrossed in such occupations, and preferred a new pattern in embroidery or "tatting" to the study of books in any form. In other schools which are more or less pervaded by High Church influences, the making of ecclesiastical ornaments (or alms-bags, altar-cloths, and the like, seems

to be regarded as a quasi-religious employment. But whatever be the value of the result produced, there is no doubt that a heavy price is paid for it in the mental indolence and listlessness which the occupation generates. When it is considered that the expense of a girl's education is so great, that many parents are compelled to withdraw their daughters from school before it is finished; and that several years, at least, of abundant leisure generally await girls after leaving school; it is surprising that parents will allow any of the precious hours of school-life to be wasted on the *strenua inertia* of fancy needlework. Yet it is, as far as I have been able to judge, very rare for parents to protest against it;—or, indeed, against anything except unsuitable companions, under-feeding, or over-study.

French.

The study of French is generally regarded as the intellectual *specialité* of a girls' school. The reason why modern languages which are specially useful in business, in politics, in travel, and in intercourse with the world, should be considered particularly appropriate for that half of the population which spends most of its time at home, is still one of the unsolved mysteries of our English educational system. It is certain, however, that in girls' schools efforts are made to teach French to a greater number of pupils than in boys' schools of corresponding position. I compute that about 18 per cent. of the scholars have commenced the study of French, or nearly double the proportion in boys' schools. But I doubt whether double the number attain the power to read a French book with ease, or to write a letter in that language, before leaving school. All the heads of schools complain bitterly of the difficulty of securing properly qualified French teachers. In choosing a governess it is apt to be assumed that because she speaks French she can teach the language; and a pure Parisian accent is regarded as of more consequence than grammatical knowledge, familiarity with literature, or the power of explaining principles. Accordingly there is very little teaching of French grammar, in the sense in which Latin is taught to boys. Few of the French teachers are competent to teach it. Some of the best lessons in French which I have heard, either in boys' or girls' schools, have been given by English teachers; and the lack of a pure French pronunciation appeared to me to be compensated, especially in the early stages of a learner's career, by the greater facility of explanation, and the greater authority which the teacher possessed. A very mischievous plan prevails in some schools, of forbidding the pupils during certain fixed hours to use any other than the French language in conversation. All my observations lead me to believe that this practice is very wearisome to the pupils, that it forces their thoughts into a narrow groove, and that it begets great slovenliness and inaccuracy in the use of French. It is impossible for the most wakeful and skilful of French governesses to hear and correct all the mistakes which a group of girls will make during an hour of leisure or a walk; and a pupil is more often confirmed in a bad habit or idiom than led to adopt

a good one. The best plan I have seen in use was that of an accomplished French teacher, who at the end of each formal lesson, devoted 15 minutes to conversation upon it. At first the pupils were simply allowed to take the sentences which had occurred in the exercise, and convert them from the affirmative into the interrogative form; afterwards they were encouraged to make further variations on the words of the lesson. The main value of the exercise consisted in the fact that within a limited range the pupils had something definite to say, and proper words in which to say it. But to ask children to converse in a foreign language on subjects to which their knowledge of the vocabulary does not extend, is only to betray them into habits of inaccuracy, and to encourage triviality and poverty of thought.

Music. The time spent in the study of music varies very much in schools. If a girl receives three lessons each week in instrumental music, she is expected also to practise every day for an hour; and as she advances, a still larger amount of practice is frequently exacted. There can be no doubt, that of all the "accomplishments," that of playing on the pianoforte encroaches most on the time that would otherwise be devoted to intellectual improvement. It is needless to say that in the majority of cases no result is produced at all adequate to this sacrifice of time. Opinions vary much about the proportion of pupils who are likely to engage in the study of music with advantage; but all the most competent persons whom I have consulted testify strongly that it is not desirable for *all* scholars to do so; and that it is a great waste of time to commence the study of the subject, unless there is some natural taste for it, and some probability that more than mechanical skill will be attained. In a very admirable school already described I found a system which appeared well calculated to prevent needless waste of time on accomplishments by pupils who had no taste for them. The school consists of two divisions, of which the first is preparatory, and included all the pupils up to the age of 13. In this lower department there are no extra charges, one payment covered the entire cost of instruction. Besides the ordinary English subjects the rudiments of music, drawing, French, and German are taught in it; and no appeal is made to the parents as to which subject the pupils shall take. At 13, when they enter the upper school, the head of the establishment has ascertained in which direction the future course should be guided. She places herself in communication with the parents, on her advice certain subjects are selected and others laid aside; and the pupils enter the master's classes accordingly.

Vocal music. Although singing is so little practised in schools, it seems that a far larger proportion of pupils may fairly hope to attain excellence in vocal than in instrumental music. On this point Dr. Monk, of York Minster, says:—

"I think that *all* girls, and boys too, should be taught the rudi-
"ments of musical grammar, *i.e.*, to read and comprehend the
"written language of music with fluency. This may be acquired

"under ordinary circumstances in three or four months. Some "practice in singing the scale and other easy exercise will be "simultaneously carried on; from which the teacher will be able "to judge what pupils should be excluded from subsequent singing "lessons. In towns the proportion of such incapables is very "small as compared with the number of those possessing what is "called 'an ear for music.' My own experience has led me to "believe that 19 out of 20 children living in large towns may be "taught to sing, provided their training is begun at an early age. "In the country both the ear and the general intelligence are "duller."

Work and play not sufficiently separate in girls' schools.

The time demanded by these various accomplishments in the curriculum of a girls' school accounts partially though not wholly for the low standard of intellectual training generally attained in it. There are one or two other causes which operate more in schools for girls than in those for boys. One of these is the way in which work and leisure are often mingled. When a boy leaves off lessons he enters at once upon a kind of amusement which carries all his thoughts in another direction, and calls into play his physical energy. But much of the time spent out of school is passed by girls in occupations which affect a sort of compromise between play and work. A walk, during which books may be read or French spoken, does little or nothing for recreation. The game of croquet, which is so much practised in schools, is compatible with a good deal of listless idling, and hardly deserves the name of physical exercise. In three or four of the schools which I have visited, a professor of callisthenics has been engaged to give set lessons; but the whole object of these exercises is to give the pupils a better style of walking, and to show them how to deport themselves. They do not supply the vigour and joyousness which belong to the free and healthy play of boys. If the professors of callisthenics would devise some games which would do for girls what cricket and football do for boys they would render a public service. For the habit of playing with zest at some game which brings all the limbs into free exercise is not without an important reflex effect on the intellectual work. It is because girls do not play with sufficient *abandon* and self-forgetfulness, that their lessons are apt to be done in a superficial way. If their play were more bracing and recreative, their mental improvement would be sounder and more rapid than it is.

Frequent removals, *e.g.* to "finishing schools."

One of the great hindrances of which governesses complain is the caprice with which pupils are removed from school to school, and especially the frequent habit of sending elder girls for the last one or two years to a "finishing school," *i.e.*, a school a little more expensive. A girl is often removed at 14 or 15 to another school to receive what parents believe to be the final polish. I have thought it right to make special inquiries respecting the working of this plan, and I am sure that, with few exceptions, it is as mischievous to the pupils as it is disheartening to the teachers. If a girl is not properly taught at a school she ought to be removed from it earlier than 14 or 15; and if she is she gains nothing by

a change, even to a school of superior standing.* A new set of books and methods breaks the continuity of her studies; she spends a good deal of her time in unlearning what she has acquired before; and the whole effect of her two years' residence in a new school is often to throw back her improvement to a serious extent.

Higher and lower schools not essentially different as places of instruction.

In these general remarks on girls' schools I have not attempted to discriminate between what are called the better class of schools and others Indeed, the experience of this district does not enable me to do so to any purpose. The high or expensive school undoubtedly differs in some important respects from its humbler rival. It is carried on in a better house; it has a more numerous staff of teachers; it is more "select;" it retains its pupils to a later age, and it is presided over by a person of a higher social position. But it is not necessarily a place of better teaching. When we ascend to the higher or more expensive schools for boys; we often, though not always, find that they are so because the master is a graduate of a university, or because he possesses some other professional qualification. But professional qualification and scholarship are as rare in the higher as in the lower ranks of girls' schools. They are, in fact, absent alike from both. Society has no right to complain of this. It provides no training for a governess who wishes to qualify herself for her profession. It has no test by which it can measure or certify any qualification which fortune or diligence may have enabled her to obtain. The qualified and the unqualified enter the profession on equal terms. Ladylike manners, a little money, good connexions, and the power to draw up an attractive prospectus, have far more to do with the pecuniary success of a school than knowledge or teaching power. It is not to be wondered at, if schoolmistresses learn to dispense with qualifications which, in the present state of education, are hard to obtain, and which, even if obtained, meet with little recognition.

Indifference of parents to the mental cultivation of their daughters.

After all the great hindrance to improvement in ladies' schools lies in the very general indifference on the part of parents to the mental cultivation of their daughters. As a rule, the governesses have an ideal of education far higher than that of the average parents, and I have seen many who are earnestly striving to improve the quality of the instruction under the great difficulties of parental apathy or discouragement. Everywhere I am told by governesses that parents cannot "see the use of" any subject of instruction except plain rudiments and accomplishments. This point has been adverted to in connexion with the school work of boys. The knowledge which will "pay" in the business or pursuit a lad is likely to enter is fully appreciated by the parents. But the only business of life which they contemplate for their daughter is marriage, and they ask for an education which will fit her for this end.

* So strongly is the mischief of frequent removals felt by the authorities at Wesley College, Sheffield, that they allow any pupil who enters young, to continue for the whole term of his school life, by paying the junior class fees. Higher fees are, of course, paid by older pupils who enter at 13 or 15, but every parent who permits the course of his son's education to be unbroken, gains the advantage of the lower scale of fees as long as he remains in the school.

And the accomplishments which they value are those which promise rather to increase her attractiveness before marriage than her happiness or usefulness after that event.* Such parents do not wish her to be ignorant of what is conventionally required of women in her station. But they rather dread her knowing any more. They think higher knowledge will make her singular, possibly unattractive in society. At any rate they do not wish to try the experiment. They will not recognize the plain facts of life,—that women, who have more leisure than men, have it in their power to make, even unconsciously, the noblest use of any culture they possess; and that every sensible man who now marries with a reasonable prospect of happiness, would have a still better prospect of it, if his wife could share his highest intellectual pursuits. It is wonderful to see how common is the assumption that the repose and enjoyment of home are in some way incompatible with a loftier standard of intellectual education for women. It is true that no one seems able to point to any example in illustration of the doctrine; or to assert that when we ascend into the households in which the highest feminine culture prevails we find any lack of grace or of affection, any less regard for children, or any disposition to neglect household duties. But it would not be difficult to point to thousands of instances of men who have started in life with a love of knowledge, and with a determination to master at least some one department of honourable thought or inquiry; yet who have gradually sunk into habits of mental indolence, have allowed all their great aims to fade out of view, and have become content with the reading supplied by Mudie and the newspapers, simply from a dread of isolation and because these resources sufficed for the intellectual aliment of the rest of the household. There is no hope for the middle classes, until the range of topics which they care about includes something more than moneymaking, religious controversies, and ephemeral politics; nor until they consider that mental cultivation, apart from its bearing on any of the business of life, is a high and religious duty.† When they come to consider this, they will set as great a value on evidences of intellectual power or literary taste when they are put forth by a girl as by a boy; and they will feel that the true measure of a woman's right to knowledge is her capacity for receiving it, and not any theories of ours, as to what she is fit for, or what use she is likely to make of it.

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* "The system of female education as it now stands aims only at embellishing a "few years of life which are, in themselves, so full of grace and happiness that they "hardly want it, and then leaves the rest of existence a miserable prey to idle "insignificance."—Sydney Smith.

† It is a noteworthy fact, that in the City of London a new trust fund of more than 60,000*l.* has just been created for improving the education of boys, notwithstanding the existence of enormous unused endowments for precisely the same purpose. No part of this is available for girls. Merchants and bankers subscribe freely; even a joint-stock company contributes 1,000*l.* on the express ground that a better race of clerks and "commercial" men is wanted to do the work of the City. But for those who are to be the wives of these men, whose influence will determine the characters which they form, and the lives they lead, no provision is even contemplated.

General Topics.

School Premises.

Private schools for both boys and girls are generally held in ordinary dwelling houses, more or less adapted by alteration for school purposes. There are, however, some exceptions. Among the boys' boarding schools which I visited five had been built expressly for the purpose, four were large mansions which had been skilfully converted, and one had been a convent, the chapel of which, though still emblazoned with religious symbolism, served as a commodious school room. In ten other cases the house was an ordinary dwelling house, but a school room had been built adjoining. Among girls' schools I only met with two examples of premises which had been erected exclusively with a view to their use as schools. The majority of private schoolrooms have a look of greater comfort than the ordinary grammar school, and are quite as well provided with school apparatus; but they are less roomy, and are often low and ill ventilated. As compared with good National schools, the equipment of nine private schools out of ten is very deficient. The arrangements for boarders being nearly always in rooms built for the accommodation of private families, are more generally unsatisfactory. The dormitories are often crowded, and the space available for washing, for recreation, and for private study is rarely sufficient. In not more than one school in ten is it a rule that every scholar shall have a separate bed.*

School Books.

As to books, I have been struck with the fact that a much larger proportion of private teachers than of grammar school masters had made themselves acquainted with the best modern manuals, and either used them or were wishing to introduce them. Notwithstanding the heavy charges made for school books in bills, it cannot be said that the majority of pupils are well supplied; and teachers complain of the great difficulty of introducing an improved text-book owing to the unwillingness of the parents to allow that an old book on the same subject, which has perhaps been partially worn out by an elder brother, shall be laid aside. The best way of meeting this difficulty is by a plan which is adopted by five or six of the most successful schoolmasters in the district. They charge a fixed sum for the use of books, and supply every boy during his stay at school with every manual he requires, from a common stock. This plan is more economical, and leaves the teacher at liberty to make any changes he may deem necessary. Parents complain very much of the diversity and cost of school books, and often express surprise that if a boy is sent to a new school every one of his old books has to be super-

* I saw in one cheap boarding school six beds, in a low-roofed room 18 feet by 15. Each of these was occupied by two scholars; and they were packed so close that it was difficult to reach one bed without walking over others. There were four such rooms, all damp, low, ill-ventilated, and crowded. Yet no teacher or other person in authority slept on the same floor.

seded by a new one.* It has been frequently urged on me that a greater uniformity in this respect would be desirable, and that if the scholastic profession were properly organized it would be a useful function for some central authority to prescribe the books which should be used. But the convenience of such an

* One gentleman, whose son's school life extended to ten years, from seven to seventeen, and was passed in three schools, of which the third was an endowed grammar school, has preserved a careful list of all the books which he was required to purchase during that period, and has provided me with a copy of it, as follows :—

ENGLISH.

Year.	
1855.	Mavor's Spelling Book.
1857.	Kenny's.
1859.	Guy's.
1864.	Latham's ditto.
	Parker's Composition.
1855.	Birkin's Arithmetical Tables.
1856.	Guy's Arithmetic.
1858.	Colenso's ditto.
1859.	Ditto Progressive Exercises in ditto.
1862.	Watson's Examples in Arithmetic.
1863.	Barnard Smith's School Arithmetic.
1856.	Hutchinson's Geography.
1858.	Cornwell's School ditto.
1859.	Ditto Geography for Beginners.
1858.	Ditto School Atlas.
1863.	Nelson's ditto.
	Butler's Ancient Atlas.
	Lempriere's Classical Dictionary.
1855.	Stepping Stone to Bible Knowledge.
1857.	Lennie's Grammar.
1858.	Allen and Cornwell's ditto.
1859.	M'Leod's ditto.
1857.	Peep of Day.
	Early Instruction by Preceptor.
1861.	Sinclair's Questions on Church Catechism.
1864.	New Testament History, Wheeler's.
	Ditto Pinnock's.
	Ecclesiastical History, Hoare's.
1865.	Welchman's 39 Articles.
	Adolphus' Compendium Theologicum.
1855.	Payne's Select Poetry for Children.
1862.	Euclid.
1863.	Colenso's Elements of Algebra.
1863.	Page's Introductory Text Book of Geology.
	Page's Introductory Text Book of Physical Geography.

HISTORY.

Year.	
1855.	Little Arthur's England.
1857.	Edwards' Summary of English History.
	Taylor's England and its People.
1859.	Christian Knowledge Society's England.
	Gleig's England, Part I.
1863.	Student's Hume.
1864.	Ince's Outline's of English.
1865.	Smith's Smaller England.
1863.	Spalding's English Literature.
1860.	Browne's Greece.
1863.	Smith's Student's Greece.
1865.	Ditto, smaller ditto.
1862.	Browne's Rome.
1863.	Liddell's Student's Rome.
1865.	Smith's smaller ditto.
1863.	Bonnechose's France.
1865.	Cockayne's Outlines of ditto.

FRENCH.

1855.	First Book.
1856.	Bossut's Phrase Book.
1857.	Perrin's Spelling.
	Bossut's Word Book.
	Bossut's First French and English Grammar.
1858.	Hall's First Course.
1859.	Habersak's Conversational Phrases.
1860.	Habersak's Tales.
	Ditto Key to ditto.
1861.	Arnold's First Book.
1863.	Grammaire des Grammaires.
	Beautés des Ecrivains Français.
	Delille's Grammar.
1865.	Ditto Prosateurs Français.

GERMAN.

1862.	Habersak's Declensions.
	Ditto Conversational Phrases.
1863.	Tiarks' Practical Grammar.
1863.	Tiarks' Progressive Reader.
1864.	Flügel's Dictionary.

arrangement would probably be counterbalanced by its dangers. No book, however good, is suited for universal adoption. Each man teaches best from the book which he likes, and which fits best the character of his own mind. The best teachers are those who supplement or even supersede the text-book by their own oral explanations. To them it matters little what book they use. Indeed, I have sometimes heard the most effective lessons from men who were using a bad book, and so were goaded into criticizing it, and supplying its deficiencies. It may be a good thing that a teacher should be made acquainted with the fact that there are better books in existence than Walkinghame and Dilworth; but it would be most mischievous to diminish his liberty of choice. Nothing would be more likely to discourage independent thought and original methods among teachers, and to render their work mechanical, than to enforce upon them the use of books, however good, which for any reason they disapproved.

DRAWING. The little experience which this district furnishes respecting the teaching of drawing applies equally to schools for both sexes. Drawing lessons are very generally given by visiting teachers and local artists; among whom are some of real merit, who take their pupils through a judicious course. But more than three-fourths of the drawings which have been offered for my inspection are meretricious performances, in which high colour and deep shading are more conspicuous than careful outline or good taste. There is no easier way of gratifying ignorant parents than by a showy picture or map, and it is very unlikely that a struggling teacher

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LATIN.

1858. Kennedy's Grammar.
Thornborrow's Exercises.
Arnold's Henry's First Book.
1859. Eutropius, Allen's.
1860. Cæsar's Commentaries.
Riddle's Young Scholar's Dictionary.
Allen's new Delectus.
1861. Eclogæ Ovidianæ, Part II.
Bradley's Prose Exercises.
1862. Cornelius Nepos, by Bradley.
Evans' Boys' First Verse Book.
King Edward the Sixth's Grammar.
1863. Arnold's Prose Composition, Part I.
1863. Gradus, Pyper's.
Virgilii Opera Omnia.
Horatii, ditto.
Ciceronis Cato Major, &c.
Oxenham's English Notes for Latin Elegiacs.
Latin and French Constructions.
Ciceronis Orationes Selectæ, Ferguson.
Sallustii Quæ extant, Valpy.
1864. Wilkins' Prose Exercises.
Livy, 2 vols.
1865. Wilkins' Prose Composition.

GREEK.

1859. Wordsworth's Grammar.
Adams' New Delectus.
1860. Major's Elementary Praxis of Composition.
1861. Wilkins' Progressive Delectus.
1862. Dalziel's Analecta Minora.
Baird's Catalogue of Verbs.
Liddell and Scott's Lexicon, abridged.
1863. Homeri Ilias.
Xenophon's Anabasis, Part I.
Arnold's Prose Composition, Part I.
Notabilia Quædam.
1864. Yonge's English-Greek Lexicon.
Euripides, vol. 1, 3.
Herodotus.
Beatson's Exercises in Iambics.
Wilkins' Prose Composition.
Accent Card.

114 Volumes.

who wishes to keep his pupils will long resist the temptation to slur over the rudiments of the art in order to produce presentable drawings as early as possible. Of simple graduated exercises in outline, of drawing from objects, of inventive drawing, of the making of patterns, or of sketching from nature, there is very little in the private schools.

Limited influence of the "Department of Science and Art" upon private schools.

The district contains some of the most famous of the provincial Schools of Art. At York, Sheffield, Leeds, and Halifax there are flourishing schools, supplied with every material requisite for the study of form and colour, and with highly qualified teachers. But these institutions exercise little influence upon the private schools. The pupils who receive direct instruction from these institutions are drawn mainly from the artisan ranks, though in the morning classes there is to be found a small number of young ladies who have left school. The indirect influence of the schools is exercised mainly through the medium of assistant teachers, who have obtained certificates from the Department of Science and Art; but this is chiefly felt on evening classes of workmen, on proprietary and other public institutions, and on elementary schools for the poor. From these, large numbers come up to compete for the prizes offered by the Department, and through them the benefits of good elementary training in the practice and in the use of art are being diffused throughout the country.* The extent to which the agency of the Department operates upon private schools may be judged of from the following statistics, showing the number receiving instruction in or through the agency of the four Schools of Art in this district.

—	Children of public elementary schools.	Scholars in other schools.	Teachers and pupil teachers.	Students in the central schools.	Total number receiving instruction.
Halifax -	726	291	28	117	1,162
Leeds -	6,165	544	91	499	7,299
Sheffield -	1,500	—	3	260	1,763
York -	700	—	6	137	843
	9,091	835	128	1,013	11,067

It will be seen that of them only Leeds and Halifax exercise any material influence over schools which are not designed for the poor.* But on investigating the statistics more closely, I find that

* I am sorry to find that recent changes in the administration of the funds at the disposal of the Department have seriously discouraged the art teachers of this district, and that the statistics of next year are likely to be less favourable. Mr. Walter Smith, the teacher of the Leeds School of Art, whose efforts in the promotion of art education have been more widely successful than those of any other art master in the district, says:—"In May 1865 we had drawing going on in 33 elementary schools; now "we have it in two. At Christmas we give up three out of six night classes, and the "next will give up sooner or later. . . The examination in the first or elementary "grade of the Science and Art Department is no longer allowed in middle-class schools, "and the second grade examination is so difficult that only very few of the pupils in "such schools can pass it. Formerly I made it a condition that every pupil, young

very little of this influence is exerted on purely private schools. At the last examination for prizes at Leeds 378 out of 544 pupils competed for prizes and certificates. Of these the Leeds grammar school contributed 96; two proprietary schools, Bradford High School, and Woodhouse Grove Wesleyan Institution, 94; the schools connected with the Leeds Mechanics' Institute, 63; while the remaining 125 pupils were furnished by five private schools, of which three were for girls and two for boys. At Halifax the 291 scholars not at elementary schools are similarly accounted for.

The teaching of private professors preferred to that of teachers certified by the "Department."

On the whole it appears that the provision existing in the four great centres for systematic instruction in art, is only accepted by 14 of the schools which come within the range of your Commission; *i. e.*, by two endowed grammar schools, by five proprietary schools, and by seven private schools. The heads of those establishments in which the system of the Department has been introduced have expressed to me great satisfaction with its working. They say in effect, "We wish to have drawing taught, but we do not want its "professors to come to us and ask what we would like, or what "style of art will 'give most satisfaction' to the parents. We "prefer to go to those who are at least the accredited teachers of "a system, and whose interest it is rather to carry out that "system, as a progressive course of education in art, than to "produce premature or showy results. The examinations held "periodically by the Department take out of our hands a respon-"sibility which we should hardly know how to exercise, and the "prize scheme, though erring too much on the side of liberality, "has on the whole an excellent effect." But the private teachers are scarcely in a position to reason thus. They are hampered by the necessity of sending home finished pictures every half-year, and they feel obliged to employ those persons who will undertake to produce them. There is also, especially among ladies' schools, a strong preference for a private teacher, who will not be likely to institute comparisons between school and school.

Difficulty of combining private schools for art teaching or lectures in science.

And the feeling of exclusiveness which makes each school desire to stand as much apart as possible, not only prevents teachers from sending their pupils to a good central school of art, but stands in the way of all efforts to combine the pupils of several schools for collective instruction of any kind. At York,

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"or old, poor or rich, taught by a master from this school, should be examined at the "examination of the Science and Art Department. I did so that schoolmasters publicly "unacquainted with the subject might have a fair opportunity of testing, through an "impartial authority, the soundness of the drawing taught. We usually passed a "very large proportion of the pupils in freehand, model, and geometrical drawing, and "the success of the pupils did good both to the schools and the masters. Now only "a very few of the very best pupils could become candidates for the December "examination, and as I don't see the use of testing only the few clever boys in "school, who will do as well and no better whether they are examined or not, I am "giving up the principle of examining them through the Science and Art Depart-"ment. I regret this, because we got a good deal of sound work out of pupils, as a "preparation for the examination, and the pupils who did well got prizes, which were "a great encouragement to them, and their success at the public examination "reckoned towards the award of their own school prizes."

See in Appendix IV., communications from the three Art Schools at Halifax, Leeds, and York.

Harrogate, or Sheffield, where many schools are very near to each other, it would seem that the union of the elder pupils in a common class for the study of art, or for lectures on science, would economize labour and expense, and serve other useful purposes. But as matters now stand, I have no reason to feel hopeful about such an experiment. It was tried recently at Harrogate and failed, and teachers evince great reluctance to renew it. A strongly marked expression of public opinion in favour of such efforts would undoubtedly have weight with schoolmasters and governesses. And if lecturers on art or science could be provided whose qualifications were indisputable, and whose position placed them out of the reach of local rivalries, the difficulty would be further diminished. In several cases the minor objection that there was no suitable room on perfectly neutral ground in which classes could assemble has been urged upon me. Teachers, especially governesses, have a great objection to send their pupils to a room in another school, however convenient it may be.

Local Examinations.

The Oxford and Cambridge local examinations, which have exerted so great an influence upon the education of the country, have scarcely impressed this district to an extent commensurate with its population and mental activity. During the year 1865, Oxford held its examination at one centre—Leeds: and Cambridge at three—Leeds, Sheffield, and Wakefield.* The statistics of the total number of successful candidates sent up from the district are as follows:—

Oxford.			Cambridge.		
	Juniors.	Seniors.		Juniors.	Seniors.
Two grammar schools -	1	1	Five grammar schools -	17	2
Four proprietary schools	14	1	Five proprietary schools	21	6
Five private schools -	6	7	Eleven private schools -	36	1
	21	9		74	9†

It should be added that six of the Cambridge candidates had passed the same examination before: and several teachers have complained to me, not wholly without justice, that credit is taken twice over by some institutions for a pupil who is placed on the list in two successive years.

Of the eleven private schools which have sent pupils to Cambridge three are included in the five which availed themselves of the Oxford examination. There are therefore only 13 private schools in my district, out of about 20 times that number; to which the influence of those examinations has been directly extended.

Oxford less popular with Dissenters.

It will be observed that Oxford receives a smaller number of candidates from this district than Cambridge, notwithstanding

* A committee has been formed for superintending the arrangements by which York will become a local centre in Christmas 1867.

† In the previous year, Christmas 1864, the numbers were—four from grammar schools, 14 from proprietary, and 25 from private schools. Thus the increase in the year has been from 43 to 83.

the fact that she selected the most favourable season of the year—Midsummer coinciding more often with the conclusion of a boy's school life than Christmas. I attribute this to the fact that there are so many Nonconformist schools in this district, and to the general feeling that such schools are placed at a disadvantage by the Oxford examiners. The curriculum requires that every candidate whose parents do not claim a special exemption *conscientiæ causâ* shall be examined in the Scriptures and in the Church catechism; and no one is held to have satisfied the examiners who does not pass in both subjects. On the other hand the Cambridge scheme gives a Scriptural examination, and an alternative of two departments, the one consisting of the formularies of the Church of England, and the other of Whately's *Evidences* or Paley's Horæ Paulinæ. Dissenters feel that Oxford is virtually closed to them by the present arrangement, and the heads of some of the largest schools in the county have spoken to me in strong terms of regret and disappointment on the subject. It may suffice to quote from a communication made to me by Dr. Raby, the accomplished head master of the Wesleyan Institution at Woodhouse Grove. He says:—

"If the local examinations are to rise to the dignity of being national in "character, they should lay aside every 'sectarian' taint. Thus, it is only "fair that all for scholarship should stand on an equal footing, and no boy be "put back or lowered in the general list through marks lost by omitting the "Church catechism and Liturgy. I am afraid there is some unfairness here. "If Nonconformists are invited to compete with a show of fair play, it should be "so that no conscientious scruples should be a bar to their standing side by "side with any boy from a Church school, to whom in their paper work they "were equal. But, if marks on the Catechism and Liturgy give an advantage, "the Dissenter must be running with extra weight in the race."

Other objections urged by teachers.

The objection that the examinations lead to the selection of a few forward scholars and deprive the rest of some of the master's supervision is not without its weight. Several of the more thoughtful teachers have themselves expressed anxiety to me on this point. Thus the Rev. R. W. Hiley, who has a large and old established school, writes:—

"The examiners require such an amount of matter, that they will have the "effect of cramping education. I will explain this more in detail. A boy at a "respectable school—say the son of a merchant, who is intended for mercantile "pursuits—ought, at the age of 16, to have made some progress in Latin, "French, Greek or German, arithmetic, geography, Euclid, algebra, history "(English and none other), and divinity. To this must be added his religious "instruction. To enter the local examination this year (Oxford) he is to pass "the preliminary, of itself requiring much preparation, then at least two sec- "tions. The Latin section requires two books of Cæsar (102 chapters), and a "book of Virgil, a piece from another book, and Latin *writing*. Then comes "another section with an equally excessive amount to be prepared. If I were "to send any in for the Oxford examination this May, I must drop all their "other subjects to cram up this quantity demanded; *i.e.*, a boy of 15 must "drop his Greek, German, mathematics, to wade through the Cæsar, history, "Samuel, St. Matthew, some treatise on the Catechism, and services. None "but a brilliant boy can do it well, and therefore the examinations are just "having a most pernicious tendency in promoting two evils. They induce a "schoolmaster to pick out a few promising boys and cram them up for passing, "whereas, with a well-arranged examination and a well-managed school, at "least one-third of the boys in that school ought to pass; and two-thirds of

" those *very boys* have had their education contracted. A few have gone from " this place and have been successful; in *every* case some branch of their educa- " tion had to be suspended. I think the standard of education would be " raised if half the present quantity were required, but perhaps another section " demanded. Any scholar can tell by ten lines of construing, and as many of " composition, how a boy has been educated."

Among other suggestions which teachers have made to me with a view to increase the public confidence in the examinations; it is sometimes urged that the universities should adopt the practice of the Civil Service Commissioners, and make known what is the maximum of marks attainable in each subject. A teacher, for example, who attaches great importance to physical science, and prepares his pupils in that department, would like to know whether the examiners are giving a higher proportion of marks to Latin and Greek, or whether on the supposition that his teaching is equally good of its kind, his pupils will stand as well in the general list as if they had passed in those languages. It is also by many regarded as a misfortune that the two Universities do not incorporate their examinations into one general scheme. At present the diversities of practice between them, though insufficient to justify on principle any rivalry or separate organization, suffice to distract teachers, and to leave a confused impression on the minds of parents and the public. To become generally popular the scheme needs to be made as simple and uniform as possible. Moreover it cannot be doubted that the two Universities could economize their resources far better on one general plan than by the present division of labour. There must be a waste of strength somewhere when Oxford and Cambridge hold separate examinations in one town in the same year.

The fees.

I fear too that the fee of one guinea charged by the University is felt by many to be high, and that its exaction hinders the spread of the system into many of the lower middle schools. The struggling teacher, who already finds that his extras are complained of by parents, fears to swell his account by the guinea fee and the other expenses of the examination. Such teachers tell me that a reduction in the charge would greatly increase the number of candidates; and they express a little surprise that corporations so wealthy as the older universities, in thus affording assistance to the children of the middle classes, should condescend to make a pecuniary profit out of the transaction.

General influence of the examinations.

Notwithstanding these drawbacks, my experience here has given me the strongest sense of the value of the local examinations, and the highest hopes as to the influence which they are likely to exert on education generally. With one or two exceptions, the list of the schools which send up pupils comprises the best and most vigorous schools in the district. And, as a rule, the influence which the prospect of the examination is exercising on the school-work seemed to me most beneficial. In only one instance did the "Oxford class" strike me as too exclusively bent on the examination, or unwisely severed from the general organization of the school. Many teachers who have not yet been able to send up pupils told me how much they desired to do so: and assured me

that the requirements of the University corresponded very nearly with the standard which they themselves desired to aim at. Indeed, the efficacy of the examinations cannot be fairly measured by the number of candidates who have been presented. It is felt in the lower classes of the best schools; and in the work of many humbler schools whose names do not yet appear in the class lists. No one questions the perfect fairness of the examination, or would feel otherwise than honoured by any success which his pupils could win in it. Apart from the theological difficulty, there is no difference of opinion as to the paramount importance of all the subjects of instruction on which the examiners insist. Reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, and history, which form the only obligatory portion of the examinations are included in every school course; while the large liberty of choice which is left as to other subjects* encourages every teacher to adhere to his own *specialité*. In the present unsettled state of educational theory it may well be believed that any attempt on the part of the universities to prescribe authoritatively what subjects should and what should not be included in a school course would be regarded, if not as an arbitrary, at least as a premature measure. The course actually pursued has under the circumstances proved to be the wisest. Nothing is imposed by authority except those rudiments, on the necessity of which all are agreed; and as the catalogue of optional subjects includes every branch taught in good schools of different classes, all forms of honest work and of intellectual excellence have an equal chance of recognition. The confidence of teachers and of the public in the examination is increasing year by year; and in this district I anticipate a steady and large augmentation in the number of candidates. The reports of the several examiners which are annually published have had an excellent effect. They have directed attention to weak points in the teaching of particular branches, and have served to raise the aims of schoolmasters by showing them what in the opinion of the most distinguished scholars of the day was desirable in schools, and how far it was attainable.

The matriculation examination of the University of London.

I have already referred to the influence of the matriculation examination of the University of London. It has been chiefly felt on the higher class of schools, since it affects those scholars only whose school life is prolonged beyond the age of 16. In the curriculum, with the exception of an alternative of French or German, nothing is left to the option of the candidate. Every

* At the junior examination Oxford requires *one* and not more than *four* of seven subjects, Latin, Greek, French, German, mathematics, and chemistry, while Cambridge adds English to the number of optional subjects, and permits five to be taken. For the senior examination Oxford requires that the candidate shall satisfy the examiners in *two* out of *four* sections :—A. English, including language, history, law, and geography; B. Languages, viz., Latin, Greek, French, German, of which the candidate must show a fair knowledge of one; C. Mathematics, pure mathematics, with a choice of mechanics and hydrostatics; and D. Physics, with a choice of electricity and magnetism, chemistry, vegetable and animal physiology, geology, and mineralogy. Cambridge offers eight sections, and requires proficiency in two of them, but the range of selection is substantially the same.

one who passes must satisfy the examiners in (*a*) English language and history, (*b*) Latin and Greek translation and grammar, (*c*) mathematics, (*d*) French or German, (*e*) elementary physics, and (*f*) chemistry. Its main object is to fix the minimum of knowledge to be possessed before a candidate enters on his studies in one of the faculties of arts, law, medicine, or science. It has come, therefore, to be accepted as one of the best existing tests of the elementary knowledge which a well instructed youth of 16 should possess: and I find an increasing number of the best modern schools fashioning their own curriculum in harmony with the scheme, and encouraging those of their pupils even who do not contemplate a university career to present themselves for matriculation as for a sort of inferior degree. It has seemed to me that there was more wholeness and unity in the work of this class of schools than in those in which a few pupils were intending separately to distinguish themselves in special subjects. The recent change in the system of awarding honours at the London matriculation is spoken of by all the teachers whom I have consulted on the point with strong approval. Instead of allowing candidates to select supplementary subjects, the University now awards honours on the general result of the pass examination. Thus every encouragement is given to sound elementary attainment in essentials, rather than to a premature devotion to special subjects. In the great schools of the Friends and of the Wesleyans, as well as in those private schools whose names appear in the London University lists, I find that this change is felt to be most advantageous. The masters tell me that in their judgment it is too early at 16 for a youth to be taking a special line, and that the proper time for doing so is later in his career, when he intends to graduate.

The extension of these examinations to female pupils.

The scheme of the Cambridge local examinations has already been extended so as to admit the pupils of girls' schools. And I can entertain no doubt that a similar extension of other examinations —the Oxford local and the London matriculation—is a measure recommended alike by considerations of justice and of expediency. It is useless to complain of the inexact and superficial character of feminine education so long as we deliberately withhold all the inducements to effort which we are accustomed to consider necessary in the case of boys. If the examination system, as at present administered, does not serve as a healthy stimulus and a sound test of honest work it should be at once reformed or abolished: but if it does, it is as applicable to girls as to boys. No one proposes to enforce the use of such examinations on reluctant teachers of either sex. The utmost which can be desired is that the advantages of the system shall be freely offered to all who feel that it suits their own needs, and is calculated to promote the improvement of their scholars. And governesses are not less willing than schoolmasters to avail themselves of these advantages. They need no less the help and guidance which the system, if well-conducted, is calculated to give. They work under greater discouragements, and have a more formidable *vis inertiæ*

to struggle against. They are subject to far greater temptations to acquiesce in a loose and pretentious style of teaching. The experiment has been tried on a limited scale, but with great success in this district. Eight female pupils only went up to the Cambridge local examination at Sheffield in 1865, and none presented themselves at Leeds or Wakefield; at Christmas, 1866, however, 37 girls presented themselves in the West Riding, viz., 19 senior and 18 junior candidates. About two months before, I had the advantage of meeting upwards of thirty governesses, comprising the heads of the most important schools in the neighbourhood of Leeds; and at their invitation the scope and method of the Cambridge local examinations were explained to them in detail. Great interest was expressed in the experiment, difficulties were freely discussed, and a very general disposition was evinced to make use of the examinations, if not at the approaching Christmas, at least in future years. At this the only meeting of teachers which has been held in the district during the period of the inquiry, I was greatly struck with the anxiety of all present to raise the quality of their schoolwork, and to have it well tested. Many of the ladies expressed a very natural dread of publicity, and a fear of the influence which might be exerted on their pupils by the prospect of so formidable and unfamiliar a thing as a university examination; others doubted whether the co-operation of parents would be freely accorded; and a few had misgivings about the physical power of young girls to undergo the strain of a protracted examination. Some facts which were mentioned in the course of the discussion were, however, well calculated to remove these apprehensions. The arrangements for the conduct of the examination by a committee of ladies were shown to furnish all needful guarantee for the privacy and comfort of the candidates. The list of optional subjects was found to include all branches to which importance is usually attached in good schools for girls. It was shown that no important modification of the existing system would be necessitated by its adoption, while the scope afforded by it offered full encouragement to those who desire to introduce into their schools teaching of a more disciplinal character. The difficulty about the nervousness of the candidates was partly met by the fact that the whole examination was conducted in writing. Experience had proved that girls were placed at no disadvantage, as compared with boys; when their knowledge was subjected to this test. In the training colleges for mistresses, and among female pupil teachers, it had long been the custom to adopt similar methods of examination; and no considerations of health or of propriety had arisen to show the necessity of any change. Such students looked upon the examination as a necessary and natural incident in their professional career, and derived from it the great advantage of a motive for steadfast work, and an honourable recognition of their success. They exhibited no more alarm at the examination, and certainly no less skill in producing papers which fairly represented their knowledge, than students of the other sex.

To these considerations, which appear to me to have great

weight, others might easily be added. Until last year, the only general examinations which were open to female candidates were those of the Society of Arts. These examinations are designed mainly for the encouragement of evening and adult classes, in connexion with Mechanics' Institutes. They were not, therefore, available for what are generally called middle-class schools. But the one girls' school in this district, which, from its association with the Leeds Mechanics' Institute, happens to be entitled to send its pupils up to those examinations, has made excellent use of its privilege. In 1865, 30 scholars in the Ladies' Educational Institute presented themselves for the examination, and the mistress testifies in the strongest manner to the value of the impulse which has been imparted, not only to the classes which furnish candidates, but to all the departments of her important school. Much of the soundness and good sense of the methods in use in this school is directly attributable to the aid furnished by a good independent examination, and to its encouraging effect on teachers and pupils. *Mutatis mutandis*, the same experience would doubtless hold good if the University local examinations, and the matriculation of London, were freely opened to girls. Teachers want to feel more confidence in themselves and in their own plans; and their most thoughtful pupils also would be greatly encouraged if they were assured of the worth and soundness of their own acquirements. But both alike deprecate any lowering or modification of the existing standards of scholarship, out of imagined deference to their special circumstances. "Give us a fair range of choice as to subjects, and leave us "access to all the existing tests. We shall then know what our "teaching is worth, and whether it comes up to the level usually "understood as that of a good education." Such is the language of the more earnest teachers. They express, indeed, great fear that the number of their pupils who could reach the standard, would probably be small; and they look forward to some humiliation and difficulty, before the strange prejudice in favour of a superficial education for girls is rooted out of the minds of parents. Meanwhile they dread lest any separate machinery should be invented for their benefit; which, while adapted to the present condition and aims of ladies' schools, may prove a permanent hindrance to their full development and improvement.

Examination of the whole school.

There are many teachers, especially among governesses, who express a strong preference for an examination of the whole school over that of selected pupils. The scheme of the Cambridge Syndicate already referred to provides for such an examination. But the cost of securing this advantage places it practically out of the reach of all but the highest and most expensive schools. It happens that in this district no private school for boys has at present availed itself of this arrangement. On the other hand, I feel special interest in recording that the only two girls' schools in the whole country, which have yet accepted the proposals of the University of Cambridge are in the West Riding. The principals of these

establishments are ladies who had given me valuable information in reply to your questions and had shown much interest in the work of the Commission. From the school of one of them, I had gained some experience which was of special value to me, when I examined the pupils. Both ladies had been present at the meeting of governesses to which I have already referred; and I have no doubt that the stimulus afforded by the inquiries of your Commission, was indirectly the occasion of the somewhat unusual experiment which they tried at Christmas 1866. I subjoin the testimony with which they have since favoured me, as to the result of the examination. One writes:—

"So far as I can judge at present, I consider the examinations are well calculated to encourage the diligent, and stimulate the idle; whilst to the teacher they offer many useful suggestions for future guidance.

"I believe I shall find them of infinite use in inducing my pupils to pay more attention to the very essential, but, as they are apt to consider, the minor points in their education, and which hitherto they have been much inclined to neglect for mere accomplishments.

"This will in a great measure compensate me for the mental anxiety I undergo in the prospect of these examinations, and which certainly destroys the *pleasure*, though not the interest I take in my school. You will perceive from the examiner's report that we failed in arithmetic, which was what I feared, especially as the paper given was rather difficult; indeed I think more difficult than the one given to the juniors at the middle-class local examinations. In grammar we failed in the analysis of sentences, which the class had only studied a short time.

"My material for an examination was not very good this time, as several of my advanced pupils had left me the previous midsummer to finish in London or elsewhere, and I was obliged to form my first class out of the second, composed of girls who average 13 to 15 years of age.

"I find it more difficult to succeed in the upper school than in the lower, as many girls are sent to me at the respective ages of 14, 15 and even 16 years, badly prepared in the groundwork of their education."

The evidence furnished by the second of these ladies is still more striking:—

"We were so satisfied with the results of our experimental examination last December, that we intend to make it a part of our school system.

"We have been in the habit of having written examinations for many years (by ourselves and the visiting masters) and comparing the work of the girls done on those occasions with what was done last December, the results of the latter are decidedly inferior; this I do not put to the account of timidity, for the girls seemed to enjoy the examination; nor to any fault on the part of the examiner who was kind and judicious, but I believe it was because they were limited to a much shorter time than they had been accustomed to.

"Our examiner sent in a very careful and truthful report, some extracts from which I send you.

"Our weak points were arithmetic, and translation from English to French; now it is a good thing to know where the weak points are, and although we were in this instance conscious of the weakness, we may not always be so; here then the examiner benefits us.

"It seems to me that the chief advantage that the school will derive from these examinations will be found rather in the strengthening of the teacher's hands, and the suggestions and guidance she receives, than in any direct and special good to the pupils; I do not mean to say that there is not any direct influence for good on the pupils, but that it is secondary to the other.

"The want of good early training is the great difficulty we have to contend with; girls of 14 and 15 come to us either to be 'finished' or prepared for London and Brighton Schools, and they have everything to begin. We have

therefore always a set of raw recruits who cannot be worked up to the mark, and have to be admitted to the higher classes before they are properly prepared; this is a constant drag and will always be a 'let down?' The preparatory schools, the private governesses, should have examinations. Why have we not training schools for teachers of a higher class, and why is any one allowed to teach in England without some test or certificate?"

I have reason to believe that if the services of an independent examiner were accessible on economical terms to private schools for both sexes, a very large number of them would voluntarily avail themselves of the offer. I am strongly confirmed in this impression by the experience gained during my own brief examinations, and by the numerous requests to repeat them which have since been received from teachers. Thus one lady writes to me:—"Our young people were greatly animated by your visit "and the examination, and the influence of it upon the whole of our "year's work has been so beneficial that I am anxious to establish "a private yearly examination of the whole school. My great diffi- "culty is the expense. From the regulations of the Cambridge "Syndicate, I find the fee for such an examination is 10*l.*, and "this with the additional expenses must at the least amount to 12*l.* "This sum I could not afford, and there are at present no mis- "tresses of schools here who would be willing to join me. I hope "some means will be found of letting us have advantages of this "kind, without incurring so large an expense. I am leading "my girls to expect that such an examination as yours will be "repeated ere long, and the prospect of it seems to have given "them a fresh motive power." I may mention that in examining private schools I was accustomed to take with me papers of questions on French, Latin, and English grammar; on composition, arithmetic, history, and geography; and a large part of every examination was also conducted *vivâ voce*. The examination always seemed to excite much interest among the pupils both of girls' and of boys' schools. I saw no reason to adopt a different course in testing the knowledge of scholars of different sexes. The attainments of the girls were well represented by their written answers; and in the oral examination of the several classes they often appeared to great advantage. To those teachers who devote special pains to the humbler work of the lower classes; to others who conscientiously object to the practice of bringing show pupils into prominence; and to many who dread the publicity of a university examination for girls; a plan which facilitated the periodical examination of the entire work of their schools, would be most acceptable. One of my printed questions was: "If annual inspection were offered to such schools as chose to "avail themselves of it, would it be welcome? If not, would "objections come (*a*) parents or (*b*) from teachers?" To the former inquiry the number of affirmative answers was very large. And it is curious that all who replied in the negative did so for others rather than for themselves; thus, parents replied that the objections would probably come from teachers; and teachers, that they would be strongly felt, if at all, by parents.

THE WEST RIDING EDUCATIONAL BOARD.

There is in Yorkshire an active association, entitled the West Riding Educational Board. It seeks to extend elementary examinations among the pupils of mechanics' institutes and evening classes; it co-operates with the Society of Arts, with the Department of Science and Art, with the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and Durham, and makes arrangements whereby the examinations of these several bodies shall be brought within easy reach of the people of the district. This varied programme of work is being carried out with remarkable energy and success. The Board holds its own examinations in elementary knowledge, and this year has examined 298 candidates, chiefly of the artizan class, from night schools. It offers prizes in money and books, it guarantees the expenses of the various examining boards, and provides suitable rooms and arrangements for the conduct of the examinations. Moreover, it keeps an able and energetic secretary constantly employed, in conferences with the promoters and friends of education, in attending public meetings, in lecturing, and in communicating information to all teachers and others who desire it throughout the Riding. The Board is composed of the bishop of the diocese, of the members of Parliament for Leeds and for the West Riding, of the Vicar of Leeds, and most of the leading men. Its influence in sustaining the life of the various institutes and evening classes of the district has been enormous. And the Board has been scarcely less successful in animating the private schools, since it has been mainly owing to its influence that the local examinations of the three universities have been rendered accessible to the schools of the Riding.

I find in the report just issued (1867) of the examinations in elementary knowledge the following significant paragraph:—

"As in former years, the council admitted to the examination "this year pupils of day schools, 186 in number, whose managers "were desirous of availing themselves of the only examination "within their reach. The council cannot in future admit any of "these pupils. The scheme of the examination is not suitable for "day schools, and the certificates awarded have, therefore, a "fictitious value. The council have under consideration an ex-"amination of middle-class schools of a more extensive character "than the university middle-class examinations; but whether "they take action in the matter or not they must restrict their "examination in elementary knowledge to the class for whose "benefit it is conducted."

It thus appears that considerable numbers of private teachers have sought to avail themselves of these examinations, but that the Board finds itself obliged to exclude their pupils for the future. Yet the demand for a genuine examination adapted for ordinary day schools is increasing, and I have reason to believe that if the board were to comply with this demand, and appoint a qualified staff of examiners, they would receive many invitations from the heads of middle-class schools. The fee of a guinea, as I have already said, seriously limits the usefulness of the university local examinations, and practically excludes from them all the pupils of the humbler private schools. There can be no doubt that the

West Riding Educational Board is in many respects well qualified to organize a judicious and economical system of inspection and examination of a voluntary kind, and thus to render an important public service. The difficulty is that it does not possess the weight of the universities, and that its certificates would have little value. It is in contemplation to widen the area of the operations of this board, to make them co-extensive with the whole county, and to place them under the patronage of the archbishop and the leading county magnates. But however well and wisely administered, a local authority like this wants public recognition and a legal status before it can exercise the influence to which it is justly entitled.

Denominational Character of Private Schools.

Of the 81 boys' schools only 11 are returned as being exclusively connected with a religious denomination. Of them six are Church of England, four Wesleyan, and one Independent. A much larger proportion of the girls' schools claim in their returns a distinctively religious character; 22 describing themselves as connected with the Church of England, seven with the Wesleyan Methodists, and three with the Congregational or Independent body. All the rest are described as unsectarian. In a very large number of private schools the scholars are divided on Sunday into two groups, of which one attends service at church, and the other at a Wesleyan or Independent meeting. The Church catechism is taught, as far as I am able to ascertain, in nearly half of the girls' schools, and in less than one-third of the boys' schools, but only to the children of Church of England parents. The numbers given above represent approximately the proportion of private teachers whose connexions lie exclusively among parents of a particular religious communion; but I have never been able to hear of a case in which a private teacher insisted on giving dogmatic instruction against the parents' wishes, or made the reception of such instruction a necessary condition of the scholar's admission. Religious parents naturally seek for teachers who are more or less in sympathy with their own views; but as a rule the schools appear to be selected rather on social and educational than on religious grounds. The majority of the masters and governesses express a strong sense of the importance of Christian teaching and discipline; but it would not be right to say of the private schools in this district that they were to any appreciable extent exclusive; or that they were used as instruments for the dissemination of any particular religious belief.

Distribution of Time.

The practice of dividing the work of the day into two portions, viz., from 9 to 12, and from 2 to 4 or 5 for day scholars; with the addition of an hour before breakfast, and one or two hours in the evening for boarders, is almost universal in boys' schools, both public and private. It is evident, however, from the statutes of many of the old grammar schools that earlier hours were once kept, and that more time was expected to be devoted to tuition. Thus in the statutes for the government of the Skipton Grammar School (*temp.* Edward VI.) which, it should be observed, contem-

plate day scholars and not boarders, I find the following provision: —"That the master shall daily enter and teach in the same "school (except feast days), unless hindered by illness or other "reasonable cause, immediately after six in the morning from the "1st of March to the 1st of October, and shall then faithfully "exercise himself in teaching the boys until 11, and from 1 "in the afternoon until 6; and from the 1st of October to the "1st of March shall begin at 7 in the morning, and shall instruct "the boys then until 5 or 6, as necessity shall require."* The statutes of the Darlington school, which are of later date (1748), ordain that the masters shall attend six hours a day in winter and seven in summer, *i.e.*, from 7 to 8, from 9 to 11, and from 1 to 6.

It need not be said that regulations like these are now obsolete. I find, however, that in several of the schools in the Craven district the day's work begins at eight in the morning instead of nine, partly with a view to a nearer compliance with the founder's will, and partly because the arrangement is not unsuitable to the habits of the people. In the Durham Grammar School the practice is to hold the morning school from 8 to 11, instead of from 9 to 12. This gives an interval of three hours in the middle of the day, of which two are available for play before dinner. Dr. Holden testifies strongly to the excellent working of this plan, both as regards the health of the boys, and the freshness and vigour with which they perform their work. With these exceptions, I have seldom found in day schools any departure from the customary hours, viz., 9 to 12 and 2 to 5, or in the winter from 2 till dusk.†

In girls' schools.

In girls' schools there is, with the exception of half an hour's grace in the morning, very little departure from the same usage. In some good day schools, however, morning pupils make one attendance of about four hours, from half-past 9 till half-past 1, and do not re-assemble in the afternoon. This plan has the advantage of reducing the daily journeys from four to two; and when judicious arrangements are made for home lessons it allows sufficient time for school work. The best division of the day for a boarding school appeared to me to be that of a most excellent school which I visited in the West Riding. The pupils rose at half-past 6, and generally walked before breakfast. They breakfasted at 8·30, and worked at lessons until 12, when a light luncheon was served. At 1 they resumed work for two and a half hours, and at 4 they dined. From 6 to half-past 7 was devoted to writing and to the preparation of the less difficult school exercises. Tea was served at 7.30, and a singing lesson

* See also the Statutes of Kirkby Stephen in Westmoreland, which I have quoted in my report on that school.

† At the Huddersfield College the day scholars are permitted, if their parents wish, to attend from 7 to 8 in the evening, and to take their seats with the boarders, who spend that hour in the preparation of lessons under the supervision of the masters. The head master informed me that this privilege was generally used and especially valued by those whose parents were for any reasons unable to secure a quiet hour or needful help and suggestion for their sons at home.

filled up the interval, till evening prayers at a little before nine. This arrangement seems hardly to provide a sufficient interval for play: but the principal of the school said that by placing all the serious work of the day before dinner, time and strength were better economized than by any other plan she had ever tried.

HOLIDAYS.

There can be no doubt that the holidays now given in schools are longer than in past times, and that there is a visible tendency to lengthen them. In the statutes of old foundation schools provisions are often found which specify the time and number of the holidays, and set limits to the aggregate number of vacation days to be taken in a year. Thus the Skipton ordinances, to which I have already referred, peremptorily forbid the master, under penalties, to be absent from the school more than 20 days in the year. In some later statutes the number of days is expressly limited to 30, while in those of last century greater liberty is allowed; and I have seen comparatively recent regulations of a grammar school fixing the maximum number of holidays at nine weeks, viz., three at Christmas, two at Easter and Whitsuntide, and four at Midsummer.

Increasing—(*a*) in grammar schools (*b*) in private schools.

The returns received from Grammar schools show that this limit is often, though not always, exceeded. There are 3 which give 14 weeks holiday in the year; 2 which give 13; 7 which give 12; while 21 give 10 or 9 weeks. In all the humbler foundation schools the holidays are much less; 32 return themselves as allowing a total vacation not exceeding eight weeks; but these are of the National school class. The higher the pretensions of a school the longer are its holidays. This fact comes out clearly in examining the returns of private schools. Twenty-eight boys' schools and six girls' schools out of a total number of 160 give holidays amounting to less than ten weeks in the year; but these are cheap and poor, and are chiefly filled with day scholars. 29 schools for boys and 13 for girls allow ten weeks; 5 boys' and 14 girls' allow eleven; 8 boys' and 27 girls' allow twelve; while of schools giving more than twelve weeks holiday 5 are for girls and 1 for boys. A comparison of these figures with other parts of the return yields two inferences: (1.) That the average holiday is somewhat higher in girls' than in boys' schools, and (2.) that the number of weeks in the year devoted to instruction is as nearly as possible in inverse proportion to the sum paid for it. It seems to me also that there is a tendency to increase the number of half-holidays and occasional days of leisure. In York the two great endowed schools have adopted the custom of giving three half-holidays in the week instead of two; and the fashion seems likely to spread.

Notwithstanding the fact that long holidays have come to be considered the special distinction of schools of the highest rank, I hear some complaints from parents on the subject.* These com-

* It is much to be desired that some better means could be found of celebrating the academic triumphs of a school than by giving a holiday whenever an old pupil has gained a scholarship or a degree. The continuity of studies is seriously broken by this practice. I take from a newspaper the energetic remonstrance of an angry parent

Not wholly the fault of teachers.

plaints are not wholly just. The longer periods of leisure are not, it is true, compensated by severer work during the school time. They are the result partly of the fact that usages sanctioned by Eton and Harrow are sure to be generally imitated; and partly of the altered character of family life in England. Young children receive more indulgences, are taken out more into company, are found more often at public entertainments than formerly. The pursuits and luxuries of adult life are not so jealously held in reserve as they were. Hence it is not wholly the fault of the schoolmaster that the season of youth is less severely disciplinal than in the days of our fathers. He cannot be expected to resist the tendencies of a luxurious age, nor to exact in the school, regulations which are out of harmony with the discipline of the home.

Substitution of three "terms" for two half years.

A change in the division of the school year, which has been very generally adopted in the south of England, is only slowly coming into operation here, although it is inevitable. The common division into two half years has several inconveniences. The Midsummer holiday fits every year less easily the habits of the parents. It is becoming the custom among people in moderate circumstances to take their annual holiday rather in September than in July; and in the better class of schools, it is a subject of complaint that an extension of the Midsummer holidays beyond their proper limit is now so often asked for that the work of the third quarter is seriously broken. Moreover, the nominal division of the year into two parts is practically very unequal. The first half, from January to the end of June, is broken by Easter and Whitsuntide, while the second half year, from the early part of August to Christmas, is often unrelieved by any holiday; and so long a session is apt to leave scholars and teachers very weary at the end of the year. In some schools this difficulty is met by giving a few days at Michaelmas. But this arrangement has the effect, either of unduly increasing the total amount of vacation in the year, or else of cutting up the time of leisure into too many small portions. The present plan, in fact, gives two long holidays, —at Christmas and Midsummer; and three short ones—at Easter, Whitsuntide, and Michaelmas. But if the same number of available days were divided into three vacations,—one of from three to four weeks at Christmas, another of ten days at Easter, and a third or long vacation from the middle of August to the beginning of October; the year would be more equally divided for working purposes; each of the three terms would be unbroken by minor holidays, and the whole arrangement would correspond better with

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on this point: "I contract with a man to teach my son for so many weeks for such "a price. He gives me notice that because he has taught somebody else's son suc- "cessfully, he means to teach my son for one week less, charging me the price "originally agreed on for the whole period, and he has the audacity to put this as a "favour to me. . . Are the parents of England to allow a schoolmaster to present "himself with a testimonial in the shape of the price of a week's board for 50 or 60 "boys, and a week's leisure for himself and his ushers, whenever it suits his vanity "to get a puff of the success of his system into the public papers?" See also the letter of Mr. Goodall, of Dulwich, addressed to the Commissioners.

the habits of good English society;—habits which have a constant tendency to spread downwards, and to affect an increasing proportion of the middle class.

In the Leeds Grammar School, this division of the school year has been adopted with such general approval, that I hear of several other important schools in the county which are likely to repeat the experiment. The period of transition is one of a little embarrassment to private teachers, many of whom will find it necessary to readjust their scale of charges, and possibly to, offend some of the parents. But it is very important that the holidays of brothers and sisters who are at different schools should coincide, and there seems to be little doubt that the change will soon become general among the better schools of the district.*

QUALIFICATIONS OF TEACHERS.

I find that of the 81 heads of the boys' schools from which I have received returns, five are graduates of Oxford or Cambridge; ten others hold degrees of other British Universities; four have matriculated at London, but have not yet graduated; six are certificated masters; four have been trained at some Normal institution, but are uncertificated; while thirteen are connected with the College of Preceptors. Of these thirteen however, seven are included in the former number of graduates or trained masters, and only one has obtained his position in the college by examination. Thus the total number of those who hold any professional diploma is 26. If my statistics were complete, the proportion would necessarily be much diminished, since these 81 schools, which probably constitute about one-third of the whole number, include nearly all the best in the district.

If we were to add to these the 64 endowed grammar schools among which there are twenty-seven, and 12 proprietary schools, of which there are ten, with university men at their heads, we shall have a total of 157 boys' schools, of which in all 52 are conducted by graduates. This number measures approximately the number of highly educated men among the principals of schools. But it furnishes no measure of the number who have been educated as teachers. Nothing is more striking than the very general disregard on the part of schoolmasters of the art and science of teaching. Few have had any special preparation in it. Professional training for middle-class schoolmasters does not exist in this country. It is certain that many of them would gladly obtain it, if it were accessible. But at present it is not to be had. It is

* The practice of giving holiday tasks, to which so many objections have been raised, is ingeniously avoided in the Durham Grammar School, by the plan of holding the examination immediately after the holidays instead of before them. A boy's place in class during the whole session is determined by the rank he takes in this examination, which always turns exclusively on the work of the preceding term. The indirect effect of this plan is to impose the burden of study and recapitulation during the holidays on those boys only who have been negligent during the school. Each scholar is induced to read in the vacation enough to keep up his old lessons, and no more is expected of him. The Rev. Dr. Holden, one of the most experienced and successful head masters in the north of England, expresses such high confidence in the wisdom and usefulness of this plan, that I have thought it right to give his communication on the subject at length in the Appendix.

not much to assert that such plans as Jacotot's system of teaching languages, Pestalozzi's mode of teaching arithmetic, the simultaneous method of teaching reading, the Socratic mode of interrogation, Locke's or Milton's plans of study, and Rousseau's notions of discipline, are unpractised in schools. They are for the most part unknown. I am far from saying that any of these deserves universal adoption; but no teacher could have studied any one of them without understanding his business better. And I believe that the deficiencies in schools arise less frequently from the lack of acquirement on the part of the teachers than from an entire ignorance of the art of communicating what they know.

Need of professional training.

The need for professional training is perceivable not only in the grave deficiencies which exist in many schools, but in the uncertain and hap-hazard way in which excellence is now and then attained. There is among teachers but little knowledge of perspective or of due proportion in regard to the various departments of instruction they undertake. Nothing is more common than to see great labour wasted on some one or two branches. Nothing is less common than to see any coherence or unity in the scheme of instruction, or any marks of deliberate and well-considered purpose. One teacher works almost exclusively at Latin versification, and as years go on gradually shuts out of his mind all care for other means of mental training. Another prides himself especially on the enormous number of arithmetical examples which he has worked out and verified. A third has a pet system of mnemonic chronology, to the elaboration of which, in the form of a big chart, he devotes all his leisure. Meanwhile the general education of the pupil suffers, and some of the most important of his faculties remain unused. Now a course of professional instruction would necessarily direct a man's attention to the relative importance of different subjects as instruments of education. That the eye and hand require training by drawing and writing; that the faculties of observation may be quickened by the study of certain natural phenomena; that some studies are best calculated to fasten the attention; that others are best fitted to improve the reasoning power; that others furnish the best food for the memory or for the imagination; that there are right ways and wrong ways of questioning; that there are stages of progress at which a learner needs explanation, and others at which all explanation is impertinent and superfluous—all these are considerations which if brought before a teacher, and made in turn the subject of serious study, would give him some notion of the objects to be kept in view in his profession, and so would save him from many mistakes.* To a man so taught, two questions would arise in con-

* The following extracts from a circular addressed by a late Minister of Public Instruction (M. Fourtoul) to the Rectors of the Lyceums and Middle Schools of France, may be read with interest. To any skilled teacher they will appear to be the most elementary and obvious maxims. But I transcribe them here partly because I have never seen in an English book the A B C of school management so well formulated, and partly because these rules form the most curious commentary—almost a satire—on my last twelvemonth's experience. I could not more compen-

nexion with every branch of his curriculum—what direct practical purpose do I hope to serve by this teaching? and what indirect mental effect will it produce? It is a truth very imperfectly recognized by teachers, that the education of a youth depends not only on what he learns, but on how he learns it, and that some power of the mind is being daily improved or injured by the methods which are adopted in teaching him At present every one works in a traditional groove, by methods which happen to be nearest at hand, but which have not been consciously selected as the best. I cannot doubt that if a good system of professional education were accessible to schoolmasters and mistresses, more philosophical methods would be adopted, and the usefulness of their work would be enormously increased.

This impression is confirmed by the fact that trained teachers are eagerly sought by the principals of many schools to fill the posts of assistants. In many of the best private and public schools I find trained men who have been pupil teachers, at work with great success in the English department. The best representatives of the class are not of course to be found in such schools; but, other things being equal, they always prove to be greatly superior to ordinary assistants. I can always recognize them at once by their mode of handling a class, by the way in which they look a group of scholars in the face, and by the facility with which they explain and illustrate their lessons. The great hindrance to the introduction of trained teachers into schools, especially into those for girls, is that the social position of these young people is often below that of other assistants; and that their manners and speech do not correspond to their other qualifications. It is a misfortune that the practice of giving professional education to the teacher has begun at the lower end of the social scale. Improvements are slow to work upwards, and I find among parents

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diously describe the internal economy of the secondary schools of England—endowed or private—than by saying that these are the methods and rules which are *not* adopted in those establishments :—

I. Ne jamais rien faire apprendre par cœur, qui n'ait été préalablement bien expliqué et bien compris, et ne pas donner pour chaque classe plus de deux leçons à réciter.

II. S'assurer, par de fréquentes interrogations, que le notions déposées dans l'intelligence des enfants y ont laissé quelque trace et y ont porté quelque lumière.

III. Faire le plus souvent possible usage du tableau noir pour le divers exercices.

IV. Donner toujours les devoirs dans la mesure où il est faciles à tous les élèves de les bien faire, et n'imposer aucun travail écrit qui ne soit ensuite contrôlé et corrigé.

V. Ne jamais ajourner la correction des devoirs faits pour chaque classe, et exiger de chaque élève une écriture lisible, une orthographie, et une ponctuation correctes.

VI. Exiger que tout devoir corrigé soit mis au net sur un cahier spécial.

VII. Ne faire apprendre dans les grammaires la formule des règles qu'après les avoir exposées et expliquées, et y avoir préalablement exercé les élèves.

VIII. Dans la lecture, et l'explication des textes français s'attacher scrupuleusement à bien faire saisir aux enfants le sens précis des mots, la valeur des locutions, les nuances des synonymes les plus usuels, et le lien que la dérivation établit entre les mots d'une même famille.

IX. Pour les questions dictées, soit de grammaire, soit d'histoire sainte, ou de géographie, se renfermer strictement dans les notions expliquées aux élèves, et se borner à deux ou trois questions à la fois.

X. Faire faire oralement l'analyse grammaticale et le *mot à mot* des textes latins, et n'exiger le *mot à mot* par écrit que rarement, et sur quelques phrases choisies.

and teachers, and especially among schoolmistresses, a vague notion that training in method is only for the lower departments of educational work, and that a trained teacher is of necessity underbred. Yet there seems no good reason why rational processes and principles should be exclusively available for primary schools. And there can be little hope for middle-class education in this country until some means are found of providing a race of teachers specially equipped and prepared for their work as the national schoolmaster is now prepared for his.

Faults of trained teachers.

Yet the trained teacher, it must be owned, has his besetting sins. His faith in the art of explaining leads him sometimes to explain too much. He does not economize his words. He is *borné* by certain rules and types of lesson-giving to which he thinks all teaching should conform. He is apt to leave the learner too little exercise for his own faculties and not enough difficulties to solve. He sometimes resembles the inquisitive child who digs up the root from day to day to see how his flower is growing. He has not confidence enough in the efficacy of patience and silence as instruments of education. Rather than permit a question to remain unanswered, he will answer it himself.* I once watched a teacher of this stamp surrounded by a class of boys who had come up to demonstrate a proposition in Euclid. The first boy enunciated the theorem, the next began the construction, and each was called on in turn to supply one sentence or part of a sentence of the demonstration. During all this time the master kept up a running fire of commentary, illustration, and remonstrance, interpolating a word here, and a suggestion there; and calling attention to the various links in the chain of reasoning which were not promptly supplied by the pupils. It is needless to say that a lesson in Euclid has no value except as an exercise in close attention and in continuity of thought, and that it is quite possible for learners to supply by a sort of knack the missing links in the chain of demonstration, without possessing any mastery over the arguments of which they severally form a part. In this case it seemed to me that through his excessive anxiety to make everything intelligible, the teacher had deprived his pupils of exactly that intellectual discipline which the study of Euclid was meant to give.

Faults like these prove rather that the training has been imperfect than that it is useless. They are less prevalent, and considerably less mischievous than the opposite mistakes of coldness, dulness, and lack of sympathy. They are sometimes to be found among the best teachers, and among those who have the strongest interest in their work. And I have no reason to suppose that an excessive desire to explain difficulties is an evil against which any elaborate precautions are needed. Nevertheless, the tendency to it exists, to some extent among trained teachers, and should be duly recognized and guarded against in all systems of training.

* Mr. Kingsley in his "Water Babies" hardly exaggerates this fault when he describes a school in which "the master learned all the lessons and the scholars heard them."

Among the heads of schools of both sexes, though I often find an unwillingness to admit that any training is necessary for the higher educational offices, there is remarkable unanimity as to its value for assistants. No difficulty presses more seriously upon the private teachers than that of procuring properly qualified assistants.* The salaries they offer are doubtless very low, averaging, in addition to board in the house, from 20*l.* to 30*l.* in girls' schools, and from 25*l.* to 40*l.* in boys' schools. But higher sums would be freely paid if a better class of teachers could be procured. None of the existing scholastic "agencies" are satisfactory, and it is difficult to obtain through them trustworthy evidence of character, knowledge, and teaching power. I have been repeatedly assured that if trained and qualified young people were to be had, their services would command a good price in the market. How this object is to be attained is a difficult problem, which it may be hoped your own deliberations may help to solve. In every existing liberal profession, except that of a teacher, it is assumed that special preparation is needed, and for it provision more or less perfect is already made. The great Medical schools attach themselves to hospitals, and in this way vast endowments and sums contributed for benevolent purposes have become available in the most efficient manner in the professional education of surgeons and physicians. Schools of law exist at the universities; and in the Inns of Court we possess ancient and wealthy corporations, with ample means for improving the character of legal education. And if the faculty of Divinity at the universities is practically of little effect in giving to the future clergyman the special training which is needed for his office; this is not because the provision for such teaching has not been made, nor because its importance has always been unrecognized. Moreover, colleges for special pastoral training have been instituted, and in so far as they profess to supply men qualified for missionary work and for the needs of particular dioceses, will always command the support of societies or of districts. But the scholastic profession has no organization, and is possessed of no advantages analogous to any of these: and it is not to be expected that voluntary efforts can be relied on for the establishment of Normal colleges for the middle-class teacher. Such institutions appeal to no sectional sympathies and supply no local wants. Among the suggestions which have been made by persons of influence in this district, are five which seem to me especially deserving of attention.

Proposed measures for ensuring higher qualifications on the part of teachers.

(1.) That since the existing accommodation in the training colleges is in excess of the requirements for primary teachers, one or two of them be permitted by the state to become appropriated to the special work of preparing secondary and higher teachers.

(2.) That the scheme of all the present training colleges be so enlarged as to permit the introduction side by side with the usual

* One lady writes to me, "During a scholastic experience of 20 years, I never once succeeded in obtaining a thoroughly good English assistant."

students, of another class destined for secondary schools; that such students should pay fees to cover the cost of their education, and should therefore be subject to no obligation to remain in schools of a particular class, although they should be examined and certificated by the Privy Council.

(3.) That failing the establishment of training colleges one of the Universities should institute a professorship of Pedagogy, and should formally recognize in its teaching, and by special examinations the importance of the science of education.

(4.) That meanwhile, the existing local examinations be extended from the scholars to the teachers of intermediate schools, and that the universities should examine persons above the age of 18, *qui non sunt de corpore universitatis*, and certify their qualifications in regard to the subjects which they professed to teach.

(5.) That a central board be established for the examination of such teachers as desired to give evidence of their qualifications, and that this board should be empowered to grant certificates varying in kind and in degree according to the nature of the examination passed by the candidate.*

It may well be doubted whether much can be hoped from the direct action of the universities in this matter. Special professional preparation of any kind is alien to the intention of those institutions. The late Professor Pillans once conveyed to me his earnest desire to see the establishment in his own University of Edinburgh of a chair of "didactics:" but even he feared that it might degenerate into a professorship of speculative psychology and fail to give the practical suggestion which the schoolmaster most needs. Nor is it likely that the extension of the local examinations to ushers and school-assistants would do more than certify their possession of a certain amount of book knowledge. It would not attest their fitness as teachers. One may hope that a department will some day be created in which an English University may offer honours in the principles and history of education, and that the holder of such a distinction may, *ipso*

* The current belief that a teacher, like a poet, "*nascitur non fit*," causes many to be sceptical as to the possibility of a scheme of professional training and examination. Yet the experience of Normal colleges has proved that "school management" is capable of exact definition, and that a curriculum for the future schoolmaster may be made as disciplinal as that for any other profession. Thus a complete course of training includes:—

(1.) An ample and accurate knowledge of the subjects to be taught.

(2.) An examination of the special claims of each of these subjects, both in its practical uses and in its indirect influence on the habits and growth of the learner's mind.

(3.) A practical acquaintance with the best methods of imparting knowledge, of illustrating lessons, and questioning on them; and of maintaining discipline and securing attention in a class.

(4.) A knowledge of the best methods of organizing and classifying a school; and of the right and economic use of its fittings, furniture, books, and teaching power.

(5.) Some acquaintance with the literature and history of education, and with the lives and plans of eminent teachers, from Socrates to Dr. Arnold.

All these qualifications admit of being tested by methods akin to those now adopted in the medical profession. A medical degree implies hospital practice as well as book work. A scholastic diploma might certify that skill had been evinced in a practising school as well as in an examination room.

facto, assert his claim for the mastership of an important school; but meanwhile the education needed by the average schoolmaster or mistress is not that which the University can supply, nor which it is best fitted to test. The current opinion in this district is more favourable to the utilization of the existing training colleges, and as the staff and resources of those institutions are at this moment large in proportion to the work which they have to do, the difficulty of appropriating some part of them to the improvement of higher education would not be great. A communication which I have received on this subject from the Rev. George Rowe, the principal of the York training school, is printed in Appendix IV. of this report, and will be found to embody a plan well deserving of attention.

Pupil teachers and articled pupils.

A system of apprenticeship if properly carried out would doubtless supply training in the art of teaching. The designation of pupil teachers is now and then used in private schools, and in the girls' school it is not uncommon to find a youthful assistant who is called an "articled pupil." But the titles are misleading, for I find that such pupils are never "articled" or bound in any way as apprentices; and that there is neither contract nor usage by which these young people can claim any instruction in the art and mystery of school-keeping. An articled pupil is simply an elder scholar, who is received at a reduced fee, on condition of her taking a share in the discipline of the school, or in the teaching of the lower classes. She often makes a verbal contract to give a certain time to this work every day, and to receive a certain amount of instruction; but no part of her instruction is designed to qualify her specially for a teacher. It is probable that if there were any publicly recognized test,—either the initiatory examination for admission into a training college, or that for a professional certificate,—young people who intended to be teachers would bind themselves as apprentices, on the express condition that they should be prepared to meet this test. But at present while there is no clear purpose before teachers or pupils, as to the way in which the profession should be entered, it is hardly a matter of complaint that nobody receives suitable help by which to enter it.

The College of Preceptors.

It would not be right to omit all reference to the College of Preceptors, an institution which appears to have been founded with a threefold design—to give to the public a guarantee of qualification on the part of teachers, to promote systematic examinations in private schools, and to encourage among members of the profession a corporate feeling and a helpful union. These laudable purposes have probably been realized in the metropolis and in other places. But in this district they have not been fulfilled to any appreciable extent. I find among schoolmasters here considerable distrust of the College of Preceptors. The total number of teachers of all classes connected with the college in any way is 15, and with one or two exceptions, the list does not include the leading schoolmasters in the district. I have reason to suppose that the number was once greater; since several of the schoolmasters assure me

that they have withdrawn themselves in disgust at the shameless use which was made in advertisements of the title M.R.C.P., by men who are wholly unqualified. Within the ranks of the profession it is of course understood that membership testifies nothing, except that the holder has been engaged in teaching, and that he subscribes a guinea to the funds of the College. But the public do not know this; and the letters M.C.P., which are constantly paraded as if they implied the possession of a professional diploma, are not unfrequently interpreted in that sense by parents. The authorities of the College are scarcely responsible for the mischief which has thus been done. The only *testamur* to which they profess to attach any value is that which confers the title of "Licentiate" or "Associate." I find in the rules of the College the following provisions:—

Its diplomas.

"Every candidate must pass in the under-mentioned subjects before he "receives the diploma of *Associate*:—(1) Theory and practice of education. (2) "Scripture history. (3) English grammar and composition. (4) English his- "tory. (5) Geography, political, physical, and mathematical. (6) Mathematics. "(7) Latin or Greek, or instead of either of them, a modern foreign language.

"Every person who, having passed in the first or second class in the first "five subjects thus specified, and having taken up the diploma of asso "ciate, shall pass in the first or second class in three of the subjects in the "following list, shall be entitled to the diploma of *Licentiate*. (1) Modern and "ancient history. (2) One modern language or Hebrew. (3) Classics, with "the mathematics of the third class. (4) Mathematics, with the classics of the "third class."

These regulations are so judiciously conceived that I sought with some interest to find how far they had been efficacious, and how many persons not possessing University degrees had obtained the distinction of Licentiate or Associate in this district. There are in all five; of whom one is an Associate because he possesses a Government certificate; another told me that he had become a Licentiate because he had twice sent pupils to be examined; a third informs me that he was made a Licentiate "he presumes out of regard to his long standing in the profession." In two cases* I found that a master of a grammar school attached L.C.P. to his signature. They were two of the worst conducted schools I ever saw. But the title helped to give a certain local reputation to the holders and to silence the remonstrances of trustees. On inquiry, however, I found that in each case the diploma had been obtained on the strength of testimonials which the master had sent up, and not by examination. Indeed, in the whole county I have only found three men who have ever been examined by the College; and of them one informed me that the examination papers had been sent down to him, that he had replied to them at home, and had sent them back after a three days' interval.

Its examinations of pupils.

Nor has the College of Preceptors been more successful in the examination of pupils in the schools. At Midsummer 1865 there were three schools in this district which sent up pupils. At Mid-

* One of these grammar schools was in Westmoreland and one in Yorkshire.

summer 1866 there was only one. I had the opportunity of witnessing one of these examinations in a large private school of 120 scholars, when fourteen boys were under examination. A neighbouring clergyman nominated by the College acted as moderator, and conducted the examination in a private room to which the teachers were not admitted. The questions were simple yet searching, and well adapted to their purpose. The most careful and judicious instructions had been sent down from the London office to secure fairness in the examination, and I satisfied myself that these precautions were scrupulously observed. But the teachers told me that they had some difficulty in persuading parents to consent to this examination, that the fee of 7*s.* 6*d.* which was exacted by the College was an impediment, and that the payment of the examiner's fee in addition was a serious tax upon themselves. Moreover they said that these certificates had little or no value; that in former years they had been too easily obtainable, since almost every candidate passed; and that at present they were held in no public esteem.

Lack of unity or "esprit de corps" among schoolmasters.

On the whole the excellent intentions of the College of Preceptors have been wholly nugatory as far as this district is concerned. It has no branch here, and I cannot find that it has ever held a meeting in Yorkshire, or that it has made the humblest attempt to unite the members of the profession into little associations for mutual counsel and help. Indeed nothing is more dispiriting than to find how utterly isolated the schoolmasters are. Theirs is the only profession I know in which there is absolutely no corporate action or feeling. Such a thing as a meeting for the discussion of professional subjects is quite unknown in this district. Had the smallest nucleus of such a society existed I should gladly have availed myself of it, and sought to enlist the aid of its members in the work of the Commission; and to obtain from them a collective opinion on many points of professional interest. But I was driven to the more laborious method of calling on teachers privately, and eliciting their testimony in detail. No one of them liked to take the lead in any movement for bringing his brethren together. Most of them spoke in terms of suspicion of their nearer neighbours and rivals, and all seemed wholly unaware of what was doing in other schools.

Their social rank.

Yet great complaints are made of the low social rank accorded to teachers, and of the reluctance of the public to recognize school-keeping as one of the liberal professions. Much soreness is often expressed on this account: yet so long as it is wholly unorganized, and is open to the qualified and unqualified alike, it is unlikely that the profession will of itself confer much dignity on its holders. The public are not after all guilty of much injustice in this matter. Until the private adventure schools cease to be in the hands of so many unfit men, the business of teaching will never take rank among the liberal professions; and it is rather in a position to receive occasional honour from its members, than to confer honour on any. Meanwhile, social estimation is not likely to be gained by demanding it as a right,

by complaining that it is withheld, or by forming societies for mutual certification; but rather by great public measures which shall improve the qualifications of teachers as a class, and gradually eliminate the unqualified from its ranks.

REGISTRATION. Of such measures that which is most in favour is a Scholastic Registration Act, analogous to that which exists in the medical profession. You will have had before you, in an authentic form, the measures which an influential committee has proposed for this purpose. Those measures have been canvassed with much interest in this district, and I find that teachers generally look upon them with approval. But the question is not free from difficulty. Every teacher to whom I speak wants a system of registration which shall admit himself and exclude somebody else. The general impression is that vested rights must be regarded, and that everyone now holding the office of schoolmaster should be entitled on proof of the fact to a place on the register. But it is to be feared that any plan which recognized all existing teachers would only perpetuate the evil. The value of a system of registration depends entirely on what you have to register. In other professions—notably in that of medicine—there are many forms of qualification, each certified by some teaching body or licensing board, and they have severally a well-known and definite value. If there were in existence a College of Teachers, which did for the scholastic profession what the College of Physicians, or of Surgeons, or Apothecaries Hall does for the medical; a great step would be taken, if its diplomas were registered and its influence extended. But at present there are no genuine diplomas in the profession, except University degrees and Privy Council certificates. To the great body of teachers these are both unattainable, and for many they would be unsuitable. It seems, therefore, to be a condition precedent to any effective scheme of registration that training institutions and examining boards should not only have been constituted, but have enjoyed some years of success. It would be cruel to cast, even indirectly, a slur upon unqualified teachers until we shall have defined what qualification means, and until we shall have allowed reasonable time and facilities to all who wish to obtain it.

LOCAL EDUCATIONAL BOARDS. I hear on all hands an earnest wish expressed that your deliberations may lead the way to some organization of our secondary and higher instruction, which, if less centralized, shall be not less effective than the machinery already working with such excellent results in behalf of primary education. Many hope much from county or local boards, composed of representatives of charities and other trustworthy men, who might deal with the educational resources of such a district as this, and distribute them in the most efficient way. Such a body would set itself, for example, to the establishment of good secondary schools on a public basis in every town; it would keep the high, the secondary, and the primary school in their due relations to each other; and provide, by a

re-adjustment of exhibitions and scholarships, a way of access to higher instruction for hopeful scholars of every grade. It would superintend the inspection of every public school and serve as a court of reference and arbitration in case of difficulty. It might place its own help at the service of such private schools as chose to accept it, and preserve a classified register of qualified teachers and of the reports which had been made upon their schools. How to constitute such a tribunal so as to secure at once high character, leisure for serious work, public confidence, and yet the power to raise and rectify public opinion, is a formidable problem—one on which this district furnishes no experience which I am able to offer for your consideration, except the limited and partial though very satisfactory operations of the West Riding Educational Board to which I have already referred.

A CENTRAL COUNCIL.

But while many doubt whether work of this kind would be efficiently done by local authorities, all seem to be agreed that some means should be found for doing it, and that a well-constituted administrative body, acting with or without local aid, should take cognizance of the whole subject of our middle and higher instruction. It is to the united action of the Universities and the State, that the more thoughtful portion of the public look hopefully for the performance of this great work. The present arrangement, which gives all parliamentary subsidy and supervision to the poor, and all the best endowments to the rich, while it leaves the great bulk of the community untouched by the influence of the Universities, or by the experience which has been gained by the State, is felt to be wasteful, incomplete, and unjust. Its anomalies can only be corrected by some authority, wise enough to comprehend the educational needs of the whole community, and powerful enough to supply them. A great central Scholastic Council might indeed do harm, if it sought to impose uniform methods and theories on the country, or if it diminished the personal interest of earnest and original men in the business of education. But it would fulfil a very noble function if it directed its powers to the creation of an improved race of teachers, if it checked abuses in the management of property; if it gave help by examination and inspection whenever help was desired; above all, if it educated the public up to worthier aims in the matter of instruction, and set up before each generation the highest ideal of mental culture which it was capable of realizing in its schools and colleges. The very censure and inquiry which the measures of such a council would provoke could not fail to be helpful in the formation of the national character.

Meanwhile our English education is not a system. It is a chaos. There is little adaptation of means to ends, because there is no general agreement as to the ends which have to be attained. Such successes as we boast are fitful and accidental, and are achieved rather in spite of our public measures than by help of them. Everywhere great resources are wasted; and there is an utter absence of co-operation among those who have similar work to do.

Everywhere the father of a family is at the mercy of mere chance as to whether suitable instruction is accessible to his children or not. And if the report on the educational phenomena of this district appears to you to be unsatisfactory and incoherent, and to deal with a bewildering variety of topics, I must ask you to attribute this result in part to the character of the inquiry itself, which indeed from the first appeared vast and indefinite, but which has proved to be not a little intricate and difficult,—and unspeakably disheartening.

I have the honour to be,
My Lords and Gentlemen,
Your obedient servant,
J. G. Fitch.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX I.

Statistics of School Attendance in four selected Towns—York, Sheffield, Halifax, and Selby.

From the census returns of 1861 it appears that the proportion of persons under 20 years of age described as scholars amounted to 15·5 per cent. of the population of the West Riding, or to 240,294 out of 1,548,229. With a view to ascertain how these children were distributed in schools of different classes, I selected four towns in the district, viz., York, Sheffield, Halifax, and Selby, and sought to obtain an exact return of the school attendance in each. There is sufficient diversity in the character of these towns to render the collective result fairly representative of the rest of the district. My return does not correspond with the figures given by the Census Commissioners; because it necessarily excludes all the children instructed at home, and because after the most careful inquiries, some obscure schools have probably escaped me. I have, however, in each case, made an approximate estimate of the number of scholars under instruction in schools from which I received no information. This estimate, however, does not affect the proportion of children attending schools of different classes, but only the aggregate number.

(1.) *York* has a population of 40,433. It possesses two excellent endowed grammar schools—the one of the highest class, the other for the sons of farmers and traders. There are also several proprietary schools under the care of religious bodies, viz., a school for young ladies conducted by a Catholic sisterhood, two upper schools belonging to the Society of Friends, and one to the Primitive Methodists. The city is well supplied with private schools of good repute, especially for girls. The number of scholars who come into the city for instruction from distant homes, is, therefore, probably in excess of the number of those sent out of York for the purpose. The settled character of the resident population, the smallness of the demand for juvenile labour, and the unusual goodness of some of the elementary schools, also cause the average of school attendance among the poor to be exceptionally high. The educational statistics of the city consequently yield a very favourable result. They are as follow:—

Boys.

A. In four public schools:—				
2 endowed grammar schools—				
Boarders	210			
Day scholars	122			
		332		
2 proprietary schools—				
Boarders	147			
Day scholars	11			
		158		
			490	905
B. In private schools; viz.:—				
6 for boys only—Boarders	47			
Day scholars	149			
		196		
16 mixed schools—Boarders	36			
Day scholars	183			
		219		
			415	
C. In public elementary schools:—				
10 National or parochial		1,107		
11 Other elementary schools		1,639		
			2,746	3,024
D. In workhouse, charity, and industrial and blind schools:—			278	
Total number of boys under instruction				3,929

Girls.

A. In two public institutions for higher instruction :—				
Boarders	69			
	—		69	
B. In private schools, viz. :—				
22 for girls only—Boarders	270			
Day Scholars	376			1,009
	—	646		
16 mixed schools—Boarders	17			
Day Scholars	277			
	—	294		
		—	940	
C. In public elementary schools :—				
8 National or Parochial -	-	639		
10 other Schools -	-	1,290		2,084
		—	1,929	
D. In workhouse, charity, industrial and blind schools :—			155	
Total number of girls under instruction		-	-	—
				3,093

Total number of scholars under instruction - 3,929 + 3,093 = 7,022.

The general results may be thus epitomized:

The figures in Classes A & B, represent the proportion of the whole number of scholars whose parents defray the full cost of their instruction. But to these an addition must be made. 120 boys of the model school, attached to the Training College have been included in class C. But this school is self-supporting, and is attended by children of the lower middle class. See page 247. A further addition should be made to represent the number of boys in the elementary schools, whose parents pay the full cost of their instruction, and on whose behalf the government grant cannot therefore be claimed. I compute the number of such scholars at 90. Thus 905+120+90 or 1,115 boys out of a total of 3,929, or 28·1 per cent. may be presumed to be above the rank of the artizan class. The per-centage of girls requires little of such correction, and is probably fairly represented by the proportion of 1,009, to 3,094 or 32·6. Combining these proportions, we have—

Boys, -	1,115	out of 3,929, or	28·1	per cent. pay the whole cost of their instruction.
Girls, -	1,009	„ 3,093, „	32·6	„ „
Both sexes	2,124	„ 7,022, „	30·2	„ „

It would not, however, be right to assume generally that 30 per cent. of the children in school attendance are able to pay the whole expense of their instruction. Out of 1,115 boys it will be seen that 440 are boarders; and out of 1,009 girls, 356 are boarders. A small number of them are children of parents who reside in York; and on the other hand it must be remembered that a considerable number, not easy of exact estimate, is sent out of the city to boarding schools at a distance. These considerations must modify the general inference which follows. In a population of 40,433, the number of boys seeking other than elementary education as day scholars is 675, or about 17 for every 1,000, and of girls 653 or rather more than 16 for every 1,000.

The numbers thus given are those of the children belonging to the various schools, or on the books in the month in which my investigation was made. The number actually present on the day on which the returns were signed was in the following proportion:

Of boys 93·6 per cent. in the schools of Classes A. and B., while only 72·9 of the boys returned as belonging to elementary schools in Classes C. and D. were present. Of the girls in Classes A. and B., the proportion actually present in school amounted to 86·2 per cent; and of those in Classes C. and D. to 73·8.

The average number of scholars in private schools for boys is 30; in private schools for girls 27; and in mixed private schools 30.

In estimating the whole number of children under instruction in York, I compute that 3 per cent. added to the total of 7,022 will be an ample

allowance for probable defects in my return. The proportion therefore of scholars to the population as returned at the last census is 7,232 to 40,433, or nearly 18 per cent., or 1 in 5·5.

(2.) *Sheffield* with a population of 185,172 is far less favourably situated in regard to its educational resources. Except Wesley College and the Collegiate School, it possesses no public boarding school of high repute; and an unusual proportion of parents in the middle and upper ranks of life probably send their children out of the town to be educated. There is a great demand for juvenile labour among the operative classes, and this labour is wholly unregulated by the salutary provisions of the Factory Act. Frequent change of residence, and other social conditions also operate to keep down the school attendance among the poor. It is singular that a considerable portion of the children of the class usually found in National Schools are in Sheffield taught in private adventure schools, of which there is a large number of a humble kind. Boys and girls are generally admitted together into these schools. The fees vary from 4*d.* per week up to 12*s.* or 15*s.* per quarter, and the teachers are in a few cases certificated men and women who have formerly had the charge of public schools. I have distinguished these Schools as the second group in Class B.

Boys.

A. In four public schools for higher education :—			
Boarders - - -	206		
Day scholars - - -	247		
		453	
B. In private schools :—			
26 superior schools (*i.e.*, in which payments are made of 4*l.* 4*s.* 0*d.* per annum, and upwards, for instruction only)—			2,504
Boarders - - -	167		
Day scholars - -	425		
29 lower schools—Boarders - -	2		
Day scholars - -	1,457		
		2,051	
C. In public elementary schools :—			
14 National and parochial schools -	3,248		
17 Others - - - -	2,595		6,042
		5,843	
D. In workhouse, reformatory and orphanage - -		199	
Total number of boys in attendance at school -		-	8,546

Girls.

A. In one public institution :—			
Boarders - - -	18		
Day scholars - - -	78		
		96	
B. In private schools :—			
30 superior schools—Boarders - -	128		1,438
Day scholars -	426		
27 lower schools—Boarders - -	5		
Day scholars - -	783		
		1,342	
C. In public elementary schools :—			
13 National and parochial - -	2,137		
16 Others - - - -	1,613		3,972
		3,750	
D. In workhouse, reformatory and orphanage - -		222	
Total number of girls in attendance at school -		-	5,410

Total number under instruction - 8,546 + 5,410 = 13,956

The proportion of scholars whose parents defray the whole cost of their instruction is that of Classes A. and B, compared with the whole number of scholars. It is—

Boys -	- 2,504 to	8,546, or 29·3	per cent.
Girls -	- 1,438 to	5,410, or 26·4	„
Both sexes	- 3,942 to	13,956, or 28	„

But the proportion of scholars who may be presumed to belong to the middle or upper ranks is much smaller, since the private schools in the second or lower group are mainly filled with the children of artisans or small shopkeepers. Omitting those of this group, the numbers are,—

Boys -	- 1,045 to	8,546, or 12·2	per cent.
Girls -	- 650 to	5,410, or 12	„
Both sexes	- 1,695 to	13,956, or 12·1	„

Of the private schools 43 are mixed, and are included both in the boys' and girls' lists; 15 are exclusively for boys, and 14 for girls. Thus the total number of private schools is 72; and as the whole number of scholars in them is 3,393, this gives an average of about 47 for each school. The average, however, is much raised by the fact that some of the humbler private schools are of unusual size, several of them containing upwards of 100 scholars. If we omit the purely elementary and cheap private schools, and take those only which are included in the first group, we find that in 40 superior private schools there are 1,146 scholars—boys and girls, and that there is an average slightly exceeding 28 for each school.

It would thus seem that I have been able to account only for a total number of 3,416 day scholars, in attendance at schools in which the full cost of instruction is paid. This number is composed of 2,129 boys or about 11 per 1,000 of the population, and 1,287 girls, or less than 7 per 1,000 of the population. My observation of the elementary schools in Sheffield does not lead me to suppose that this estimate needs to be corrected on account of the intrusion of children of a superior rank into them.

The proportion of scholars actually present when the returns were made was in the public elementary schools 70·3 per cent., and in the private and higher schools about 86 per cent. This low number may be partly accounted for by the fact that the return was made in the month of January, when weather was bad, and a few of the children were prolonging their holidays.

In estimating the total number of children attending school in Sheffield, it should be remembered that owing to the size of the town, and the obscurity of many of the schools, my list was probably incomplete; and also that I failed to obtain returns from about 8 per cent. of the schools to which I applied for help. 15 per cent. may therefore be safely added to my figures. Thus the school attendance of Sheffield may be approximately stated as—

16,048 to 185,172, or 8·7 per cent., or less than 1 in 11 of the population.

(3.) The town of *Halifax* has a population of 37,014. But it is closely surrounded by populous townships, to the inhabitants of which its educational advantages are practically accessible. If within a range of two miles, portions of the most important of them, North and South Owram, Hipperholme, and Skircoat, be added to the parliamentary borough, they give a population in round numbers of about 50,000. This town possesses two endowed grammar schools of good reputation, of which one is at the neighbouring village of Hipperholme. There is no proprietary or other public school adapted for the reception of scholars of the middle or upper class; but there is a fair average number of private schools. Nearly the whole of the industrial population is affected by the provisions of the Factory Act; and the effect of this measure on the regularity of the children's attendance at school is very marked. The statistics of attendance are as follows:

Boys.

A. In two endowed grammar schools :—			
Boarders - -	53		
Day scholars - -	80		
	—	133	
B. In 13 private schools :—			534
Boarders - - -	37		
Day scholars - -	364		
	—	401	
C. In public elementary schools :—			
10 National or parochial -	1,758		
9 Others - - - -	1,271		3,132
	—	3,029	
D. In workhouse and orphanage - -		103	
Total number of boys in schools - - -			3,666

Girls.

B. In 13 private schools: —			
Boarders - - -	32		
Day scholars - -	315		
	—		347
C. In public elementary schools :—			
8 National or parochial -	1,493		
7 Others - - - -	766		
	—	2,259	
D. In workhouse or orphanage - -		79	
		—	2,338
Total number of girls in school - - -			2,685

Total number in attendance at school, 3,666 + 2,685 = 6,351.

Thus, the proportion of scholars whose parents defray the whole cost of their instruction is—

Boys -	534 to 3,666, or 14·1	per cent.
Girls -	347 to 2,685, or 12·9	per „
Both sexes -	881 to 6,351, or 13·4	per „

I doubt if these figures need material correction in order to show the percentage of scholars who may be presumed to belong to a class above that of the poor. In Halifax there is no social barrier separating the children of that class from those immediately above them; and the elementary schools, which are numerous and are efficient, are largely used by the children of the lower middle class.

Moreover the number of persons clearly belonging to the middle class and actually resident in Halifax, is smaller than in most towns; and considerable numbers of their children are sent to a distance for instruction. It seems that the day scholars in middle and upper schools amount to 444 boys and 315 girls. If to this we add 10 per cent. to represent the number of children of the same class, who have been attracted into the elementary schools, we obtain 488 boys or nearly 10 per 1,000 of the population, and 346 girls or less than 7 per 1,000.

The average number of boys in the private schools is 30·8, and of girls 26·3.

The statistics show that of the children reported as on the books 91 per cent. of boys and 85 per cent. of the girls in the private and higher schools were actually present on the day when the return was made. In the lower schools 82·5 per cent. of the children were present.

In comparing the total number of scholars with the aggregate population of the town, my figures give the number 6,351 to a population of 50,000. If 10 per cent. be added for deficient returns, it appears that there is a total

number of 6,980, amounting to about 14 per cent., or about 1 in 7 of the resident population, a proportion much more favourable than that of Sheffield.

(4.) *Selby* is a small and stationary town of 5,271 inhabitants. It is in the heart of an agricultural district; and possesses no endowment or other special advantages available for higher education. It has, however, several endowments for the instruction of the poor, and excellent National and Wesleyan schools. Its statistics show a very high average of school attendance They are as follow :—

Boys.

B. In private schools :—		
2 for boys only—Boarders - - -	21	
Day scholars - - -	45	
4 for boys and girls—Day scholars - -	26	
	——	92
C. In public elementary schools, viz. :—		
3 Church of England - - -	292	
4 Others - - - - -	273	
	——	565
Total number of boys at school -		- 657

Girls.

B. In private schools :—		
2 for girls only—Boarders - - -	32	
Day scholars - - -	30	
4 for boys and girls—Boarders - -	3	
Day scholars - -	77	
	——	142
C. In public elementary schools, viz. :—		
2 Church of England - - -	226	
2 Others - - - - -	241	
	——	469
Total number of girls at school -		611

Total number in attendance at school, 657 + 611 = 1,268.

Thus the proportion of scholars to the population is 1,268 to 5,271, or 24 per cent.

The proportion of scholars in the private schools amounts to 92 out of 657 boys, or 14 per cent; and to 132 girls out of 611 or 21·5 per cent.

The number of day scholars in the private schools is 71 boys and 117 girls. I compute that about 20 boys of the same class are in the public schools; and that thus the total number of boys requiring higher than elementary instruction, and able to pay for it, amounts 111 out of the whole number 657, or 17·9 per cent. The 91 of these who are day scholars amounts about 18 per 1,000 of the population. No such addition need be made for the girls of the middle class, as they are much less often sent to schools of this class, and as in Selby a considerable number of girls requiring elementary instruction are actually in humble private schools. The number 117, however, gives a proportion of 22 girls to every 1,000 of the population.

The per-centage of scholars actually present was in the private schools 88 per cent. of boys, and 92 per cent. of girls. In the elementary schools 70·9 per cent. of the boys, and 69 per cent. of the girls were present.

On comparing the results yielded in these four cases, it appears that the fraction of the population under instruction in schools in towns varies from a little more than one-fifth in the most favourable to one-twelfth in the least favourable circumstances; but that it probably should reach one-sixth in any town well provided with the means of education.

Of the number actually in attendance it appears that the following are the proportions seeking higher instruction than that of the purely elementary school:

In York,	boys, 28·1	per cent.	of the whole number	of children in school.
„	girls, 32·6	„	„	„
„ Sheffield,	boys, 12·2	„	„	„
„	girls, 20·0	„	„	„
„ Halifax,	boys, 14·1	„	„	„
„	girls, 12·9	„	„	„
„ Selby,	boys, 16·9	„	„	„
„	girls, 22·3	„	„	„

Thus the general average on the four towns gives 17·8 per cent. of the whole number of boys, and 19·7 per cent. of the whole number of girls under instruction, as belonging to the class which pays for its own instruction.

Thus in round numbers it may be stated that if one-sixth of the population should be at school, one-fifth of this number, or one-thirtieth of the whole, should be in attendance in schools which come within the range of the inquiries of the present Commission. This gives about 34 per 1,000 of the population, of whom, as I shall shortly show, 20 may be estimated as boys and 14 as girls.

With a view to compare the statistics with those which have been obtained from other parts of the country I sought to make an estimate of the number of boys requiring day school accommodation only; and for whose instruction in superior schools, provision ought to be made. But this problem is complicated in my district by the difficulty of determining how many children, now sent away to boarding schools, would be kept at home and sent to good secondary day schools, if they were once established; and by the further difficulty of distinguishing between the scholars actually in the elementary schools, and those who ought to be in them. In York and other places many boys are in schools established for the poor, whose parents could well afford to pay, and would send them to good secondary schools if they existed. In Sheffield many boys are sent to cheap private schools, who would be more appropriately taught in the ordinary primary schools. These considerations must modify the conclusions derived from the following figures, which I give without claiming much value for them.

Number of day scholars (boys) seeking secondary or higher instruction:—

York - -	675; or 17	for every 1,000	of the population.
Sheffield - -	2,129; or 11	„	„
Halifax - -	488; or 10	„	„
Selby - -	91; or 18	„	„

Incidentally the figures here collected disclose one or two facts of which I was not in search, but which nevertheless possess some interest, viz., (*a*) the relative numbers of boys and girls under instruction in schools; (*b*) the regularity of the scholars' attendance; and (*c*) the proportion of children in elementary schools belonging to the Church of England.

(*a*). The ratio borne by the attendance of girls to that of boys in schools of different classes is as follows:—

York - - -	3,093 girls	to 3,929	boys.
Sheffield - -	5,410 „	to 8,546	„
Halifax - -	2,685 „	to 3,666	„
Selby - - -	611 „	to 657	„
Total -	11,799	16,798	

or in the ratio of about seven to ten.

This proportion is not materially altered if we separate from the gross numbers the figures showing the returns for private and upper schools only.

(*b*). The regularity of attendance in schools may be approximately measured by the proportions of scholars actually present to the numbers returned as in the schools. These proportions are as follows:—

	In private and higher schools.	In public elementary schools.
York - -	89·9 per cent.	74·3 per cent.
Sheffield -	86 „	70·3 „
Halifax -	88 „	82·5 „
Selby - -	90 „	70· „

For the reason already given, I am unwilling to attach too much importance to the Sheffield return. But it is notable that by far the highest rate of school attendance in elementary schools is attained in Halifax, where the Factory Act is efficacious not only in enforcing the attendance of the half-timers, but also in giving to the whole industrial population more orderly and punctual habits, and a stronger sense of the importance of education.

(*c*). Finally, it may be noticed that of the children in attendance at public elementary schools, those in National or Church of England schools form the larger proportion. They are thus distributed:—

In York there are	1,746	children in	Church schools	out of 4,675, or 38 per cent.
Sheffield -	5,385	„	„	„ 9,593, or 56 „
Halifax -	3,251	„	„	„ 5,288, or 61 „
Selby -	518	„	„	„ 1,034, or 50 „
In all,	10,929	„	„	„ 20,639, or 52 „

The proportion reaches its highest point in manufacturing towns, and its lowest in the cathedral city of York with 26 parish churches and an unusually large number of clergy. This computation is at first sight inconsistent with the general statistics of the Committee of Council, which show that about 66 per cent. of the children inspected are in church schools. But the apparent discrepancy is accounted for (1) by the absence from my return of rural villages, in which the only school is generally a Church school; (2) by the fact that dissent is more prevalent in the towns of the West Riding than in the country generally; and (3) by the fact that a far smaller proportion of Church than of other elementary schools decline to avail themselves of the parliamentary grant.

APPENDIX II.

Specimens of Papers used in examining the Schools.

A, for Pupils from 13 to 15; and B, for Junior Pupils.

A. 1.

Latin.

(1.) "Dum hæc *geruntur*, piratæ *omnia maria infestabant;* ita ut Romanis, toto orbe *victoribus*, sola navigatio *tuta non esset.*"
(2.) Parse the words in italics.
(3.) What rules of syntax are illustrated in this passage?

English.

(1.)
"I *wind about*, and in and out
To join the *brimming* river,
For men may come, and *men may go*,
But I go *on for ever.*"

Parse the words in italics.
(2.) When are nouns and pronouns in the objective case? Why is it more easy to determine this for pronouns than for nouns?
(3.) Point out the meaning of the following prefixes, and give words in which they occur:—
Re, un, intro, sub, post, en, trans.

Arithmetic.

(1.) What is the value of 963 ounces of gold at 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* per ounce?
(2.) How many packets of tea, each containing 2¾ oz., could be made up from a chest containing half a hundredweight?
(3.) To what sum of money will 750*l.* 10*s.* amount if invested at 3½ per cent. for five years?

ROMAN HISTORY.

(1.) Name in order the kings of Rome, and one or two of the chief occurrences in the time of each.
(2.) When and how did Julius Cæsar become famous?
(3.) What was the difference in the form of government before and after his time?

ENGLISH HISTORY.

(1.) What was the Norman Conquest? When did it take place, and what important consequences followed it?
(2.) Who were the chief persons living in the reign of Elizabeth, and for what were they celebrated?
(3.) Where are the following places, and what events have taken place in them? *Runnymede, Marston Moor, Bannockburn, Dunbar, Lewes, Bosworth.*

A. 2.

LATIN.

(1.) Translate—

"Avaritia *pecuniæ studium* habet, quam nemo sapiens *concupivit*. *Ea* semper *infinita*, insatiabilis est; neque *copia*, neque inopia *minuitur*." (*Sallust.*)

(2.) Parse the words in italics.
(3.) Turn into Latin—

Come here.
Whom do you call?
Two hundred thousand horsemen.

ENGLISH.

(1.) Paraphrase or analyze the sentence—

"Virtue *could see to do what* virtue would
By *her own* radiant light, *though* sun and moon
Were in the flat sea *sunk*."
(*Milton.*)

(2.) Parse the words in italics.
(3.) Why would it be wrong to say:

"A great number were here."
"I wished to have gone yesterday."
"If he permits me, I will go."

ARITHMETIC.

(1.) How many times will a hoop which is $2\frac{1}{4}$ yards in circumference turn in rolling $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles?
(2.) Divide 1,100*l.* among three persons, so that the second shall have twice as much as the first, and the third four times as much as the second.
(3.) Take from 1*l.*, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, and $\frac{1}{5}$ of it, and say what fraction of it will remain.

ENGLISH HISTORY.

(1.) Give in succession the sovereigns of the Stuart family, with their dates, and one or two principal facts in each reign.
(2.) What is meant by—the House of Lords, an Act of Parliament, the Royal Prerogative, Prime Minister.
(3.) Who were: *Alfred the Great, Wycliffe, Shakespeare,* and *Milton,* and when did they live?

GEOGRAPHY.

(1.) Draw a map of the country with which you are best acquainted.
(2.) Name six of the most populous and important counties in England, and the principal towns and rivers in each.
(3.) Where are the following places:—The *Rhine, Calcutta, Assam, Gibraltar, Mont Blanc, Rouen, Hastings,* the *Clyde,* and *Tasmania.*

A. 3.

LATIN.

(1.) Translate—

"Sævius ventis *agitatur* ingens
Pinus; et *celsæ graviore casu*
Decidunt turres; feriuntque *summos*
Fulmina montes."

(*Horace.*)

(2.) Parse the words in italics.
(3.) Give the syntactical rules for the government of the accusative in Latin and illustrate each by an example.

ENGLISH.

(1.) Parse or analyze the sentence—

"The daisy, by the shadow that it casts,
Protects the lingering dewdrop from the sun."

(2.) Make a list of the relative pronouns in English. Give the rules of syntax which refer to them, and illustrate each by an example.
(3.) What do you know about words which end in *tion, able, fy, ness, ful, ly* and *ing?*

ARITHMETIC.

(1.) What sum of money is that which, if placed out at interest at 6 per cent., will amount in three years and a half to 1,000*l.*?
(2.) Find the difference between the product of $\frac{4}{5}$ and $\frac{2}{7}$, and the sum of $\frac{1}{5}$ and $\frac{3}{8}$.
(3.) What income tax should a gentleman pay, at 7*d.* in the pound, on an income of 864*l.* 10*s.* per annum?

ROMAN HISTORY.

(1.) What were Consuls, Tribunes, and Senators in Rome?
(2.) Give a short account of the first Punic war.
(3.) Who were the following persons:—Tarquinius Superbus, Hannibal, Catiline, Brutus, Augustus?

ENGLISH HISTORY.

(1.) Give a short account of the Crusades, their object, and the persons chiefly concerned in them.
(2.) What were the chief events in the reign of that sovereign whose history you have most recently read?
(3.) What do you know about the following persons:—Wolsey, Cromwell, General Monk, Washington?

B. 1.

LATIN AND ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

(1.) Give all the cases of each of the following words:—Is, qui, ille, ego.
(2.) Quote the rules of agreement, in either English or Latin, and give an example of each.
(3.) Explain what is meant by the words, *vocative, infinitive, passive, demonstrative, connective.*

ARITHMETIC.

(1.) Find the difference between four hundred and fifty-three sixpences, and eighty-nine half-crowns.
(2.) Find the price of 14½ lbs. of tea at 5½*d.* per ounce.
(3.) Write out the table of Troy weight.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

(1.) Who were the Saxons, the Normans, the Plantagenets, and the Tudors?
(2.) Where are the following places:—*Reading, Ripon, Bristol, Exeter, the Severn, Doncaster, Newcastle, Birmingham?*
(3.) Write an account of the events of that reign in English history of which you know the most.

B. 2.

GRAMMAR.

(1.) From what roots are the following English words derived:—*External reflection, subscribe, Mediterranean, inspire, ditch, envelope.*
(2.) Analyze the sentence—

"Breathes there the man with soul so dead
Who never to himself hath said,
This is my own, my native land?'

(3.) In what way can one word be said to *govern* another in English?

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

(1.) Name as many as you can of the *cities* in England, and say where they are situated.
(2.) What sovereigns have reigned within the last century?
(3.) Where are the following:—*The Thames, Rochester, York, the Wash, Glasgow, Bristol, Preston, Ben Nevis?*

ARITHMETIC.

(1.) Find the value of 19 lbs. 6 oz. at 3*s.* 4*d.* per oz.
(2.) Find the fifteenth part of five pounds.

B. 3.

GRAMMAR.

(1.) Parse the sentence—

"He that is down need fear no fall,
He that is low no pride."

(2.) Point out the exact meaning of those portions of the following words which are printed in italics:—*Re*turn, *in*significant, revere*nd*, visi*ble*, *un*just, iniqui*ty*, beauti*fy*, conversa*tion*, good*ness*, streng*th*.

ARITHMETIC.

(1.) Take four hundred and fifteen thousand three hundred and seven from two millions and a half.
(2.) How many fourpenny-pieces are there in 315 half-crowns?
(3.) Multiply 726*l.* 15*s.* 9½*d.* by 17.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

(1.) Name the capital cities of the countries in Europe.
(2.) Describe the course of one of the following rivers, and the places near which it passes:—The Severn, the Thames, the Rhine.
(3.) Who were the Plantagenet kings, and when did they reign?

APPENDIX III.

Paper of Questions circulated in the District, with selected Replies.

The following questions were drawn up by me for circulation in the district among those persons who were considered likely to feel an interest in the work of the Commission. Many of the replies which were received have been incorporated in the report, and many others are repetitions, in substance, of statements and opinions which have been brought in many other forms before the notice of the Commissioners; of the rest, a few are re-printed here. In choosing them, I have been guided by the wish to represent the opinions, however diverse, which prevail in the district. When only one or two replies are given, it may be concluded that my correspondents were nearly unanimous. In nearly every case the proportion given of affirmative and of negative replies corresponds to the number of such answers which were received, and has not been determined, *a priori*, by any wish to secure apparent unity or to recommend particular views. I am indebted to the persons undermentioned for replies on the subjects on which they are severally able to speak from special experience, or with special authority.

The Rev. Canon Atlay.
„ C. Andrew.
E. B. W. Balme, Esq.
Mdlle. Borel.
The Rev. J. R. Blakiston.
„ R. Bruce.
„ T. Clarke.
The Ven. Archdeacon Creyke.
The Hon. Payan Dawnay.
Dr. Dyson.
The Rev. R. Elwyn.
Miss Evans.
Dr. Grieve.
The Rev. W. Gurney.
Miss Heaton.
The Rev. Canon Hedley.
„ H. B. Hall.
„ Dr. W. G. Henderson.
„ R. W. Hiley.
Miss Holland.
Miss Husband.
The Rev. E. Jackson.
The Rev. J. B. Landon.
Mr. Alderman Law, Bradford.
The Mayor of Leeds.
The Rev. J. Mason.
„ W. Mason.
„ C. S. John Mildmay.
Dr. E. G. Monk.
W. Morris, Esq.
Walter Morrison, Esq., M.P.
The Rev. T. Myers.
J. Nowell, Esq.
Miss Plint.
Dr. Pollock.
The Rev. C. F. Routledge.
Major Stapylton.
The Rev. T. H. Stokoe.
Miss Taylor.
The Rev. T. C. Thompson.
„ W. Wilberforce.
Lord Wharncliff.
Dr. Wright.
The Rev. Charles Voysey.

I am also indebted for replies to several persons not resident in the district, to whom my paper of questions was privately sent, and whose testimony was not presented to the Commission in any other form. Among these are the Rev. G. W. Kitchin, of Oxford, the Rev. O. Gordon, Harry Chester, Esq., Miss Rossetti, Rev. J. E. Prescott, Messrs. J. Raimbach, Spanton, and Hunter.

Endowments.

I. *Are the endowed foundation schools within your knowledge flourishing and useful?*

1. Assuming that this refers to endowed schools in rural districts, with which only I am acquainted, I know none which are fulfilling the intentions of the founders, or are of any great use now as they are managed.

2. There are too many of them for all to be eminently successful. When

one has a great success it is generally at the expense of others in its vicinity. For example, it would be impossible to have a very flourishing school simultaneously at York, Leeds, Wakefield, Pontefract, Sheffield, and Doncaster.

3. They do not supply the kind of education wanted by the mass of the respectable inhabitants, and the few who want the education they profess to give, generally send their sons away from home.

II. *If not, do you attribute their inefficiency—*
(*a.*) *To unwise restrictions in the founder's wills.*
(*b.*) *To the mode of appointing the masters.*
(*c.*) *To negligent administration.*
(*d.*) *To a want of adaptation to the requirements of the scholars, or*
(*e.*) *To any other reason?*

1. (*a*) The restrictions in the founder's wills, as to subjects to be taught and the class of scholars to be admitted, are often prejudicial, a state of circumstances having arisen which the founder did not foresee.

(*b.*) There seems to be generally less defect in the mode of appointing masters than in the want, which is often found, of power to remove a master who proves himself wholly incompetent.

(*c.*) Very negligent administration does no doubt prevail to a great extent, especially where the endowments are so small that no one thinks it worth his while to look after them.

2. (*e*) To religious restrictions and exclusive regard for the National Church. Partly from the founder's restrictions, if carried out at all, being now quite unsuitable to the locality, and partly from the bad choice of masters sometimes made by the trustees to find a pension for an inefficient or worn-out *protége*.

3. (*e*) Parents who have made their money in a country town don't usually support its grammar schools, but send their children to Eton, Harrow, Rugby, &c., as more genteel and less favourable to the development of provincialism in dialect. Again, there is a strong feeling against sending children into towns for education in a smoky atmosphere and confined premises. The great reason, however, that deters parents from keeping boys of distinguished talents at country grammar schools is the fact of their being able to take them to a better market at one of the great public schools where their success has more chance of being adequately rewarded.

4. (*e*) To a growing distaste, especially in commercial neighbourhoods, to fundamental training in the ancient languages, grammar, &c,, with an undue haste after modern knowledge, which together form a tide often too strong for a master to stem.

5. Where there are radical defects in the constitution of these charities the whole structure must, of course, be re-organized; but in too many instances the cause of their inefficiency may be traced to the want of ability and faithfulness in the managers. An institution will often be found to work well, notwithstanding minor impediments, during the administration of an honest, and competent director; but, in order to ensure success at all times, there must be, what the Government is now supplying, supervision.

6. (*a*) To a close and illiberal interpretation of his objects and intentions.

(*e.*) And to a want of inspection or supervision.

III. *By what means could the benefits of endowed schools, so far as you know them, be extended, and their abuses corrected? e.g.—*
(*a.*) *By altering the constitution of boards of trustees or modifying their powers.*
(*b.*) *By giving greater independence to the head master* (*e.g. vesting in him the appointment of all under masters*).
(*c.*) *By abolishing exclusive rights of certain scholars, e.g., founder's kin, or residents in a particular parish.*
(*d.*) *By removing all restrictions as to the subjects to be taught.*
(*e.*) *By regular inspection under some competent authority, and the publication of an annual report, or*
(*f.*) *By any other method?*

1. (*a.*) Whatever may be the defects arising from the usual mode of appointing trustees by their filling up vacancies in their own number I question

whether any other mode of appointment, as, for instance, election by a large body of voters, would not involve greater evils. Where their powers are limited, as in several cases known to me, to merely receiving the income of the endowment and paying it over to a master, without even power to effect repairs, and do many other things most necessary to maintain the efficiency of a school, it is obvious that their powers need to be extended.

2. (*c.*) I think that in many cases the exclusive rights of certain scholars may be most properly abolished. The same principle on which the law prohibits a perpetual entail seems to me to justify the abolition of restrictions as to founder's kin. Where circumstances have greatly changed, as *e.g.*, by a very large increase in the value of the property, without corresponding increase in the population of the parish, the restriction as to residents in a particular parish may be properly abolished.

3. (*d.*) The restriction as to the subjects to be taught may be most properly removed, as, for instance, in a case well known to me, where an endowment, now amounting to more than 200*l.* a year, is limited by the founder's will to teaching 15 poor children to read, who are to be turned out as soon as they can read, and others taken in; and this in a parish abundantly supplied by National, British and Foreign, and other day-schools.

(*e.*) I think such inspection highly desirable.

4. (*a.*) The trustees (who should not be fewer than nine), should be supreme over the head master, but should be chosen from an extended area, say a radius of 20 miles from the school, and from among well-educated men.

5 (*a.*) The town and persons principally interested in the efficient management of the school ought to have some power, the principal power in electing trustees, and in removing from the board those who never act.

6. (*f.*) The head master should as far as possible be independent: meddling by committees does much harm. Get a thoroughly efficient master and put confidence in him. This, however, will be entirely unsafe if the board have not the power of dismissing any master. When his salary depends on fees there is a healthy stimulus.

7. (*b.*) I would convert many such schools into National Schools of the ordinary class, and enjoin the subjects usually taught therein, subjecting them to regular inspection. The funds would, I think, be best applied as permanent stipend to the master, with a reserve of an amount sufficient for providing school apparatus.

8. (*c.*) Inspection is most valuable; it acts upon managers, clergymen, and pupils. I should wish every school to be inspected annually; teachers gain hints from the questions an inspector gives.

9. (*d.*) It is, I think, very desirable that there should be no statutable restriction as to subjects to be taught.

10. Regular inspection would be of the utmost service; it would encourage an efficient master and inspire confidence in him; it would expose an unfit master and perhaps be the means of bringing about his retirement.

11. (*c.*) By abolishing the rights of residence in a particular parish the whole tone of the schools would be improved morally, socially, and intellectually. Such contributions of scholars are generally such as should go to a National School, and are a dead weight on the masters, the other scholars, and the school routine.

12. (*c.*) To abolish anyone's right is an act of injustice, and I don't think good would come from doing wrong.

(*d.*) If all restrictions are to be removed as to the subjects to be taught, the masters must be περὶ πᾶν πεπαιδευμένοι and they will be difficult to meet with. I should leave the subjects to be taught to the discretion of the head master, who will soon ascertain the requirements of his locality.

(*e.*) Inspection by competent persons is always beneficial, and is the greatest help to a painstaking teacher, who would find his reward in the publication of a favourable report. In some quarters it would be violently objected to and would, no doubt, be fatal to the interests of many a flourishing academy.

13. (*e.*) Yes, *e.g.*, that of the Cambridge syndicate sending down an examiner unhampered by local associations and impartial. A report published by the syndicate is more weighty with governors and parents.

14. The majority of the trustees should reside at a distance from the school,

and be men above suspicion of favour; they should also be educated men. I would abolish all exclusive rights. Practically all restrictions in (*d.*) have been abolished, I believe, in most of our schools. It would give more latitude of choice of masters to get rid of the restrictions in the larger schools to graduates. I do not fear abuse of the discretionary power. I do not believe in the virtues of inspection, which can deal with little more than the instruction as compared with the education given in the school. If himself removable the master should appoint under masters, trustees retaining a veto.

15. (*f.*) By admitting all foundation boys by competitive examination, and by a real separation of the English or commercial boys from those who are destined for a university or a great public school. By setting a master over the commercial part, who should not only be responsible for its efficiency but free to work out his plans without the interference of any other master, at least while at work.

16. By avoiding most scrupulously any plan, remark, or recompence, which could be construed into disparagement of the English or commercial department, or an exaltation of the classical at the expense of the commercial section. By the periodical inspection of a Government (not a local) examiner.

17. Not by such minute and frequent inspections as those of the Committee of Council on Education. I am of opinion that all schools should be subject to occasional inspection *on cause shown*, and that the pupils should be examined by competent examiners once a year.

IV. *In the case of a large town, should a modern or English department be established in connexion with the grammar school?*

1. Considering the greatly improved and improving quality of the instruction given in the ordinary National Schools of large towns, I am of opinion that it is a mistake to establish a modern or English department in connexion with the grammar school in such places.

2. I think so, if Latin were superadded, and the classical and English departments were placed under one head for organization, discipline, and supervision, that the two schools may be as much one as possible.

3. It is questionable whether such union is desirable. The head of a purely grammar school is not usually the best for the modern or English school, and when conjoined there is a probability of both suffering.

4. I don't think that two different systems of education answer well in the same school. As far as I have had experience there is usually a bad feeling between the two elements, the one despises the other, and a sense of social inferiority arises in what is called the modern department. I would far rather see separate schools for the different departments, and then a wholesome emulation might take the place of an internal, implacable schism.

V. *If so, how should it be organized, and what should be taught in it?*

1. If, however, such department *be* established, I think it better that the buildings should be entirely distinct, in different parts of the town; that a master should be appointed for the management of the modern department, responsible to the head master of the grammar school, who should occasionally examine and report to the trustees upon the modern department.

2. Arithmetic, applied mathematics, book-keeping, botany, chemistry, natural philosophy, *English*, systematically, and possibly also French and Latin, either or both; German for the highest pupils of all might be an advantage.

3. It should be organized exactly as the grammar school, and the two parts must feel their unity to work well.

4. English grammar and composition thoroughly, and good legible writing. Drawing, chemistry, and physics should not be neglected. Early discipline in manipulation in these all-important sciences obtained at school may be (and probably will be) perfected in the evening class schools, and become a source of perpetual pleasure to the possessor through life.

5. It should be under the control of the head master, and made, as nearly as possible, similar in its organization to all other departments. Special masters should be appointed to teach in it, wherever the existing masters are disabled from want of time, or knowledge, from teaching what is required. As to what

should be taught in it: Modern languages—French and German; mercantile knowledge—commercial usages, arithmetic, stocks, insurances, &c.; agricultural knowledge—land surveying, agricultural chemistry; general knowledge of common articles of use and commerce, as to their production, conveyance, value, &c.; above all, such portions of social science which concern the subjects of capital and labour, the production, the use, and the storing of wealth, the art of gaining a livelihood, and everything connected with social economy.

VI. *In the case of a small town or village, in which there are scarcely any scholars willing to receive classical instruction, how may the spirit of the original foundation be most equitably carried out? e.g.—*

(*a.*) *By establishing in its stead a good national school.*

(*b.*) *By amalgamating the smaller endowments, and substituting one good central school for several bad ones.*

(*c.*) *By converting the endowment into the form of a scholarship or exhibition enabling the holder to receive gratuitous education at a great public school. (If so, on what principle should the exhibitioner be selected?) or*

(*d.*) *By any other means.*

1. A good parochial or National school ought to be established in every parish, and central middle-class schools at certain intervals to accommodate four or six parishes. Where the amount of the endowment is considerable, it might be made available for establishing a school for a special purpose, *e.g.* an agricultural school; a preparatory grammar school for the larger grammar and public schools, &c.

2. (*b*) Convenient centres should be selected and triple systems of cheap boarding schools established. A. One school in which boys from 8 to 14 should be taught Latin, French, arithmetic, mapping, botany, natural history, and elementary English subjects. B. A second school, situated conveniently for the largest commercial centre of the district so as to be accessible to as many day boys as possible, in which Latin, French, German, English, systematically, chemistry, mensuration, and other applied mathematics might be taught to boys between 12 and 16. C. The third school should be the high school; its course should comprise the various branches of a liberal education. Latin and Greek verse writing, however, I should not regret to see wholly or almost wholly eliminated, and translations into English, French, and German verse substituted. Pupils from A. should pass into either B. or C. according to their parents' wishes, and very promising lads in B. should pass to C. if scholarships could be furnished by absorbing the smaller endowments which are doing little good in the country; such scholarships to be competed for by examination.

A maximum, if thought advisable, might be laid down for the income of persons whose sons should be eligible to these scholarships, or at least in cases of equality, or near approximation, difference of circumstances might possibly be allowed to weight without other than good effects.

3. In such a case the endowments should be retained for the good of the town or village, and expended on general education, at the same time encouraging classical education by prizes, and one or two exhibitions, if possible, for higher schools or university, but by no means removing the school out of the district. The love for classical and higher education would be fostered and increased; but such school should be thoroughly Catholic and National, not in the narrow Church sense, but in the broadest sense, open to all Her Majesty's subjects irrespective of creed.

4. In a village a grammar school is not required, a good National School answers all requirements. Farmers in this part of Yorkshire send their children to the National School in the village; some send their children when 14 or 15 to some finishing school for a year; they are not always happy in their choice, probably some place called an "academy," that has a show day, speeches, and plenty of prizes takes their fancy.

5. (*c* and *d*) If the endowment is for a classical and mathematical education, and "the small town or village" furnish none of such candidates, I think it might be attached to the nearest good grammar school in the shape of an exhibition to the universities, and that the candidate should be elected to it by an open competitive examination amongst the boys of the school.

6. The amalgamation of smaller endowments in one good central school would be the most likely way of placing a sound education within reach of the class which most needs it. Small farmers would send their sons for two or three years to such a school, if the expense did not exceed 25*l.* or 30*l.* per annum. Possibly trustees for a certain district might be found willing to undertake the establishment of a school, if the endowments of two or three schools within that district were offered to them for the purpose.

7. (*c.*) This is the best and most fair to the class for whom grammar schools were intended. The selection should be by examination, some respect being paid to the pecuniary circumstances of parents. The difficulty is a competent board of examiners; but a board might be selected for a certain district that might hold its examinations annually at a certain time and place.

8. National schools throughout the country being pretty well provided for, I think that a good central school out of amalgamated endowments would be the thing to be desired; but the scheme would be violently opposed by every petty town or village which had the smallest interest in the matter, except the one chosen for the centre. (*c.*) Would be objected to as taking capital to be spent out of the locality, and it would be very difficult to arrive at a satisfactory arrangement for the selection of the exhibitioner.

9. I think the amalgamation of endowments is a most important question. By the present state of things great educational power is squandered and wasted. The want of good schools to supplement the great public schools, rather more elastic and less expensive, is proved by the establishment and success of large proprietary and middle-class schools and colleges, Were the latent power of the old grammar schools made available by concentration there would be no need for these. To adhere rigidly to the letter of founder's wills is to render them, in the present altered state of things, useless. In each county or district there ought to be one good upper and one middle-class school (or, if this is not practicable, a combination of the two by the system of bifurcation) with which part of the endowment of the surrounding schools should be amalgamated. The other part should be employed in establishing a good national school or such a school as is adapted to the want of the particular place. Scholarships tenable at the central school might be founded out of the appropriated endowment to be awarded annually by competition to any boys from the originally endowed districts, to whom such help is an object. These scholarships might cover the expenses of board and education; or, all boys from the endowed districts might be admitted to the central school on payment of the same school fees as foundationers in the town in which it is established, and at a nominal charge for board (if too distant to attend as day boys), such as would put parents to little more expense than keeping their boys at home if the absorbed schools had been retained in their original form and those boys had attended them as day boys.

10. By enlarging it to include neighbouring villages and selecting the best scholars at a given age from the village schools it would beneficially affect a large circle.

(*c*) This might be done with great benefit, especially in the case of those passing the University examinations, or those of the Society of Arts.

11. (*a*) This depends on circumstances. If by "national" is meant, an exclusively Church School, I do not think it ought to be allowed to exist in such a place.

(*c*) This may sometimes be done. All exhibitions should be awarded on the principle of merit, ascertained by competition before an independent and impartial authority.

VII. *What is the form which an educational endowment can most usefully take, and which is least liable to perversion or abuse?*

(*a*) *Freehold site and school building merely.*
(*b*) *Permanent stipend to master.*
(*c*) *Exhibitions or scholarships.*
(*d*) *Provision for free instruction, or for reducing the fees paid by poor parents.*

1. Do all you can to secure a good master; give him a good house (in which he may take boarders); good school premises; a moderate salary with

a capitation fee upon the boys; if the funds will admit it establish exhibitions (not scholarships) at any college in either of the universities, and the parents will generally be able and willing to pay for the instruction.

2. (*b*) Never wholly independent of fees; all men need stimulus.

(*d*) Cheap much better than free; if the latter, only a very few.

I only object to the second, placing a master entirely independent of the board or of fees. If he does not do his duty it will be extremely difficult to remove him from the enjoyment of a large endowment. This has been the cause of many endowed schools going down. Have a certain endowment fixed, the rest of the salary dependent upon and measured by success.

3. Of the (*d*) form I should prefer the latter alternative. Except in extreme cases (*e.g.*, Clergy Orphan school, &c.) I think that it is desirable that some fees should be paid by parents, at least during the early period of a boy's education, giving him every opportunity of gaining a free scholarship or exhibition by his own exertions.

4. A site and school buildings are essential. The master's salary should dilate and contract according to the prosperity or want of success of the school. Exhibitions and scholarships will always attract a good class of pupils who would go elsewhere if not invited by some such encouragement. Where free instruction has been provided by founders I would retain it, but should not go out of the way to introduce it, as things gratuitously provided are seldom properly estimated.

5. I put (*a*) first, (*b*) second, (*c*) third, and (*d*) a very bad fourth.

6. (*d*) I do not think free education is desirable without it is earned by successful competition. The mere "poor scholar," without average ability and inducement to earnest study, is only a cumberer of the ground. He is no credit to society or to himself, and ought not to be maintained at the public expense.

7. No provision should be given for free instruction. The master should have a permanent stipend, say of 200*l.*, and if he had no boarders a capitation grant, say of 5*l.* per head. He should also be provided with a house and certain emoluments, such as coals and candles; but a portion of his stipend should in every case be made dependent on results. I know a grammar school where the master receives a large income for endowment, and he does not care a bit whether he has any scholars or not; so that the school, which was very flourishing in his predecessor's time, has now dwindled down to almost nothing.

8. (*d*) For reduction of the fees, decidedly not for free instruction.

To (*a*) the objection is, the unsettled question of the conscience clause, and a certain immovability and want of adaptation of means to the end.

To (*d*) that free instruction is never valued like that we pay for.

9. (*b*) Yes, but only to a certain extent. The major part of his emoluments should depend on his success.

(*d.*) Such provision or reduction should never be made from the school funds, except in favour of those who have earned it.

VIII. *What are the special practical objections to any one of the forementioned forms of endowment?*

1. (*a*) The only objection to a freehold site and premises that occurs to me is that a master of private means sometimes allows the school to decline and keeps the premises as a residence.

2. Permanent stipend to the master may lead him to adopt a system which will enable him to pocket it with the least possible exertion.

3. Exhibitions may do harm by bolstering up a bad school which ought to have come to a crisis long ago.

4. Free instruction may lead the children of poor parents in pursuit of an *ignis fatuus*, and often makes the master think he is not remunerated for a portion of his labour.

5. I dislike gratuitous education. The children so taught are, as a rule, the most irregular in attendance; anything not paid for is not valued.

IX. *Do you know the case of a charitable endowment of any other kind which might properly be rendered available for educational purposes?*

1. There are several charitable endowments which might properly be rendered available for educational purposes, *e.g.*, in cases where provision has been made

for clothing the poor, and there are no poor to receive the money. In cases of almshouses where (as frequently) there is a surplus, after paying the annual expenses, such surplus might usefully be employed in aiding schools.

2. There are sometimes doles and other charities which would be better spent if converted into educational grants.

3. There are in every town (every old town) certain bequests which were made at times and under circumstances very different from the present, and it is impossible to fulfil the intentions of the founders. Such are provisions for decayed traders or artisans of a certain class, which traders or artisans have now ceased to exist in the town. There are many charities, the intentions of which are fulfilled by the poor law relief, and which are now a nuisance and worse. At Darlington, about 70*l.* of this class of charity used to be distributed annually for the sole benefit of publicans.

4. Yes, if only it were recoverable. A bequest, 130 years old, of 40*l.* per annum, to be expended in medicines for the poor of a parish, population now 770; average number of deaths per annum, 12; very few poor properly so called.

5. We have many charitable doles, I am sorry to say they are still left to us from time to time. This might be checked by confiscating all at once, were it only possible. I recognize no right in a man to injure his fellow-creatures by the disposition of his property after it ceases to vest in him at death.

6. In the village in which I live there are two such endowments: the founders, even in their day, were well-disposed towards education. In the trust deeds part of the proceeds was directed to be applied to that good purpose. The value of these proceeds has been much increased, and for the most part these funds are distributed in alms of a few shillings at a time to the poor, and in some cases may do good, in others the contrary, by encouraging pauperism. There are also amongst us (and good friends of the poor) some persons who think that the funds would be better applied in educating their children in the central National School which we have, and which ought to be a preparatory school to the endowed grammar school.

7. In the case of my own school, the rent of a chantry house and land which was paid to the schoolmaster many years ago is now given in dole to the poor.

8. Yes, Lord Wharton's charity, possessing a large and increasing revenue, is now devoted to the distribution of Bibles and Crossman's Catechism to hundreds of persons well able to buy those books if they wish for them.

Private and Proprietary Schools.

X. *What are the relative advantages of boarding as distinguished from day schools?*

1. It seems to me a misapplication of terms which has led, and is likely still to lead, to serious practical errors when the day school is spoken of as a place of education. The day school is very valuable as a place of instruction, *i.e.*, for imparting knowledge. But this forms only a small part of education, which is the formation of active habits, and thereby of the moral character of the man. Habits can only be formed by drawing out into action the principle, which instruction can only present as intellectual ideas. . . . . The memory may be exercised, the perception may be quickened, habits of mental application may be formed in a day school, but towards the formation of the many other habits which constitute the character of the man the day school can do very little. These latter are formed in the child who only attends a day school by the influences of his home and of the associates he meets with outside of home and of school. These influences the boarding school takes upon itself to supply and control; whether it is better or worse than the day school depends on whether the influences which it does supply are better or worse than those which the day-school child meets with at home or out of school. I fear that for a very large proportion of the children of the middle class the choice between boarding school and day school is but a choice of evils. On the whole probably the education which children of that class get from such boarding schools as they usually frequent is worse than that which they would obtain from instruction in a good National School, and the influences they would meet with at home and out of school.

2. To answer this question we must take into consideration the character of a pupil's home. There are some who might be better for the influence of the family circle; these can obtain a good education as day pupils; but many have not these advantages, and therefore their mental culture and moral character will be better developed in a boarding school, where they will also acquire greater refinement of manners and feeling by coming in contact with polished and educated persons.

3. The boarding school is more an epitome of the world and fosters the growth of tact, self-control, and observation of human nature, and renders the whole school more amenable to the influence of a master spirit.

4. In a town school I should like the boys, if possible, to be boarders, but generally such a school requires to have day boys to keep up the funds, besides many can afford to pay for day instruction but could not conveniently pay the extra sum for board.

5. In the middle and lower strata of the middle classes girls may, as a rule, gain by going to boarding school; those in a higher class will, I think, lose by being removed from the influence of a home circle of educated people. I have no doubt that home influences are far more favourable to morals than boarding-school influences.

6. In boarding schools pupils have no outward abstraction, and consequently their interests are centred in their lessons and duties. Great evils may arise from day pupils being admitted; for instance, a tendency to gossip, carrying on clandestine correspondence, the introduction of trashy literature, &c. Regularity of hours and meals, too, is greater than is possible at home.

7. Discipline, unbroken work, saving of time, social intercourse with their teachers, regularity of attendance in the boarding schools. Where it is feasible the Sunday at home seems to work well.

8. The only advantage I know of is, that the boarding school may supply what is too often wanting in discipline and moral influence at home. On a very large scale the boarding school might prove a saving of money, but scarcely sufficient to overbalance the enormous disadvantages which the loss or interruption of home influence occasions.

9. Boarding schools are far more educational than day schools. The only point in which the latter are superior to the former, if they are what they ought to be, is superior cheapness. The pupils of a day school ought, at least, to be made to play together and to dine together.

10. I think day schools preferable to boarding schools, because the pupils have the home influence acting upon them, and enabling them to keep their individuality. At the same time the day school gives the necessary advantage of discipline and method. Also, children, as growing creatures, thrive better when anything reasonable is done to break the seeming monotony of study, and this is done by simply going and coming to school.

11. When homes are what they should be day schools are best; but the mental culture can be more uninterruptedly attended to in boarding schools, because every arrangement is made for the studies of the pupils. No child should be sent to a boarding school until it is 12 to 14 years of age, by which time it may have some principles by which it may guide its conduct. A long course of boarding school life has a tendency to make a girl selfish, as she has not constantly to be giving up to parents and brothers and sisters; but a day school in a town has its drawbacks when girls are beyond childhood.

XI. *What is the minimum number of scholars for a good boarding school, having regard—*

(*a*) *To economy in housekeeping.*
(*b*) *To the payment of an efficient staff of teachers.*
(*c*) *To proper classification.*
(*d*) *To the growth of emulation and public spirit among the scholars.*

1. (*a*) I should say 50.
(*b*) (*c*) and (*d*) 150, and the maximum I should be disposed to fix at 300.

I do not think there should be less than 100 nor more than 300, and these should be under the different masters, in suitable boarding-houses, not

more than 30 in one house; a larger number could not well be managed on family principles. Economy and efficiency of staff, classification, and emulation are all improved or impaired in direct proportion to the increase and decrease of the numbers; but beyond a certain point a school becomes too unwieldy for one man to manage properly, and the moral and religious tone, I fear, is impaired.

2. This, of course, depends very much upon the number and efficiency of the persons engaged in it. Where there are two or more principals, and good teachers, 50 or 60 may, I think, be well taught; beyond that number the pupils would pass too much into the hands of teachers.

3. The minimum number of scholars would seem to me to be about 50. Supposing 25 of these were boarders at 50*l.* per annum, the head master would clear 20*l.* on each of these, and would thus have (with his permanent stipend of 200*l.*) about 650*l.* per annum. The payment from the 25 day boys would amount, on an average, to about 425*l.* per annum. This would allow 200*l.* for the head of the English department, and 225*l.* to be divided among two ushers.

4. If a private school has only 30 or 40 boys it is pretty sure to be broken up into petty cliques, and to get a small unmanly tone. Games flag in a small school. There will be always some who will not play at all, or, at any rate, not heartily. In a small school the number of these, apt to be the "dangerous classes" of school life, is large in proportion and more influential than in a bigger school. Public opinion is not strong enough to keep such boys in order and make them play. With the small classes and small play of a school of 30 pupils, healthy emulation and public spirit must be missing. These reasons induce me to place the minimum of an efficient school at 50 pupils.

5. Large schools are infinitely preferable to small ones. There is better discipline, better moral training, and more emulation.

XII. *What should be the charge* (1) *for the boarding, and* (2) *for the instruction of children—*

(*a*) *Of merchants, and men in the higher professions.*
(*b*) *Of ordinary traders, clerks, and professional men.*
(*c*) *Of farmers, small tradesmen, and superior artizans?*

1. (*a*) (1.) 100*l.* (2.) 30*l.*
(*b*) (1.) 50*l.* (2.) 15*l.*
(*c*) (1.) 30*l.* (2.) 8*l* to 10*l.*

A maximum is here given. If lower terms could be offered and as good an article given all the better.

2. 60*l* per annum for board and education.
40*l.* „ „
25*l.* „ „

3. The charge for the board and instruction of classes (*a*) and (*b*) should be 50*l.* per annum, of class (*c*) 40*l.*

4. For instruction only the same charge should be made for all, viz., 15*l.* if resident in the town or parish, 20*l.* if not so resident.

5. The school fee for foundationers in a grammar school ought to be about 10*l.* per annum, with modern languages. For non-foundationers nearly double these, unless the endowment is large enough to aid in providing a good staff of masters. I should think 5*l.* or 6*l.* for a middle-class school.

6.	Charge for Boarding.	Instruction
	(*a*) 40*l.*	40*l.*
	(*b*) 30*l.*	20*l.*
	(*c*) 20*l.*	10*l.*

These sums are calculated on a minimum of 40 scholars in each school, and should include everything but the personal clothing and travelling expenses of the scholars.

6. (*a*) 50*l.* for (1) and 15*l.* for (2).
(*b*) 28*l.* „ 8*l.* „
(*c*) 15*l.* „ 4*l.* „

XIII. *Are parents in these several classes able and willing to pay such sums?*

1. Both able and willing (except in the case of some struggling professional men who find a difficulty in the matter). In the rest ability is abundant, and (except in the case of a few farmers) willingness, too.

XIV. *Do schools managed by public or proprietary bodies possess any, and what, advantages over private adventure schools?*

1. Greater stability; on the whole a far higher class of masters and more independence.

2. Most frequently private schools are better managed than proprietary ones; they have but one head, and no danger of division and disagreement. Private interest secures devotedness to work, and desire to please provides sound education, but proprietary schools encourage education in localities where private enterprise may have neglected the district or failed in an attempt to establish a school.

3. None whatever, I think—rather the reverse—if the proprietary members at all interfere.

4. The masters are more independent in proprietary schools, less likely to succumb to the waywardness of the pupils and caprice of the parents.

5. Schools managed by public bodies afford a much greater guarantee of efficiency, and consequently increase the public confidence. They give much greater authority to the master and make a more perfect discipline possible. They give a much higher tone to the character of the masters and secure the ready and punctual obedience of the pupils to all rules and discipline, which things are a most important part of education.

6. The advantage of acknowledged stability; they are not broken up, and do not melt away with an individual. There is also a certain guarantee for efficiency of teachers, intelligent arrangement of work, and inspection.

7. Prestige, old associations, old school traditions, and the affection of old boys should annihilate private schools.

8. A larger amount of interest is taken in public and proprietary schools, and there is generally better supervision; but, in most cases, perhaps too much interference with the masters.

9. Chiefly the advantages of greater capital, ensuring better premises and wider competition for masterships. As to detail of management they generally degenerate into collections of private boarding schools, as at Uppingham, Cheltenham, &c. As day schools, the larger establishments have great advantages over the smaller private ones.

10. The schools managed by public or proprietary bodies have the advantage of—

1. Public and well known character, which is, in itself a great stimulus.
2. Greater stability and continuity than can usually be attained by private schools.
3. More persons are interested in their success.
4. The capacity of the masters is more carefully looked to.

On the other side—

1. There is constant danger of interference and collision unless the governing body be very well chosen.
2. The masters have perhaps less personal interest in the boys and in the success of the school.
3. And have also less direct responsibility as to the boys' characters, &c.

11. There is no doubt that public schools, at least for senior boys, are the most efficient and the most satisfactory from the moral point of view. In fact "private adventure schools" are like absolute monarchies. If a fortunate accident gives a really good head, a private school will be excellent; but then, on the other hand, such schools take their tone from their chief, and men of ordinary character have but little stimulus or check, save the falling off of numbers. All sorts of squalid tricks, negligences, and ignorances may flourish in what seems to the inexperienced a successful private school. Boys will hear a great deal without "telling," especially if their master is on fair terms with them, and popular rather than not. Nor are they good judges of

efficiency in school arrangements; they may grumble about their bread and butter, but know or care little about the goodness or badness of the education. If they can get fair plenty of hearty play it makes up for many shortcomings in their teachers; but I do not know that this is peculiar only to private adventure schools.

12. If a private school is conducted by a master fit for his position, the advantages it possesses over a proprietary school can hardly be over-estimated, for the interest of the master is involved in the success and well-doing of the pupils.

XV. *If so, what sort of proprietary or governing body is most likely to do the work well and to gain the confidence of parents? e.g.—*

(*a*) *A purely commercial company, on the principle of limited liability.*
(*b*) *A body composed mainly of the parents of the scholars.*
(*c*) *A local board, municipal or otherwise.*
(*d*) *The members of a particular religious denomination.*
(*e*) *The members of a particular profession.*

1. (*c*) Boards of guardians are pretty fair representatives of local boards in general. The schools of which boards of guardians are the governing body, namely, workhouse schools, are I believe, generally speaking, the worst schools in England. I believe few measures would be more detrimental to education than to place other schools under similar management.

2. A governing body, consisting of members of a particular religious denomination, seems to me, on the whole, most likely to do the work well, because such persons are most likely to work together with that earnestness which is essential to education, religious conviction being the deepest motive on which man can act. When persons of different denominations have to act together in such a work as education, each must be constantly sacrificing something of his own religious convictions, and *pro tanto* his earnestness in the work is likely to be diminished.

3. (*a*) In critical times such a body could not be trusted to stand by the master and sacrifice the present to the future and permanent.

(*b*) There are strong objections to a body of parents, as such, governing a school.

4. (*c*) I am strongly of opinion the best governing body for any school is a local body of the principal resident gentry, about 18 or 20 in number, who can take a more comprehensive view of all matters connected with the school, and will be free from the ignorant, petty, contracted views of illiterate small trustees; men with a fair admixture, however, of the principal tradesmen and business men of the town. This body should be self-nominating, but appointed by the Lord Chancellor after proper local opportunities have been given for objections. A purely municipal body will never be free from "jobs" nor from party and political motives, which at once destroy public confidence.

5. If the right men could be got as trustees, certainly (*c*). The only practical means to this end which I see is, that somebody (say the Charity Commission) should make a practice of worrying inefficient bodies of trustees until they resign; but the area of selection of trustees must be enlarged, and the master have no freehold.

6. To do the work well is not necessarily to gain the confidence of parents: (*a*) would be most likely to gain the confidence of parents, but might or might not do the work well; (*c*) would most likely do neither; (*d*) would be unspeakably worse; (*e*) if members of the profession of schoolmasters were to form the governing body, subject to the control of a central board or council of education, they would be more likely to do the work well, and by being under Government inspection would secure the confidence of parents.

7. (*d*) Let sectarian schools be managed by sectarian boards, if they will; but the price is a loss of fresh air and of English character. Church schools can be so managed with less loss than others, from the relations between the upper classes and the Church; but even they lose a good deal by it.

8. That governing body is likely to answer best which abstains most from any attempt to govern the school. I do not believe any case can be found in

which any controlling power really exercised over the head master has been for the advantage of the school.

9. (*d*) Though a clergyman of the Church of England, I must say that I have known many proprietary schools so managed very efficient and flourishing. Possibly the laudable pride of sect may be a great stimulus to sustained energy.

XVI. *How far is it difficult or undesirable to bring together into the same school scholars of different social grades?*

1. I think that in an upper school boys of different social grades will assimilate not unreadily, but that there is great reluctance on the part of the boys in the upper department to mix with boys in the lower, and that such reluctance is encouraged by their friends. The department should be entirely separate.

2. I think that to bring together into the same school scholars of different social grades is a thing in itself very desirable, if only something like a fair proportion can be maintained between the numbers of the scholars from the different grades; so that a very few of the higher may not be dragged down by a greatly preponderating mass of the lower; nor a few of the lower be marked as black sheep amongst a much larger number of the higher.

3. In schools of the middle or lower classes I do not think mixture of widely different grades is desirable.

4. A good school will always suffer by an attempt at amalgamation of social grades.

5. Very difficult with farmers' sons and daughters after a certain age (say 14) in a national village school. Up to that time no evil nor difficulty arises that I am aware of. The want of middle-class schools I have felt strongly in such cases.

6. It is difficult, because those of every rank are constantly trying to associate with the rank next above them and to avoid the society of the rank next below them. For this reason, Eton College is more mixed than any other school in the kingdom, because, being the highest, all the lower ranks press into it, who can afford its expenses, and there is nothing higher to which the aristocracy can retreat. It is only undesirable to mix the different grades in a school when masters and parents take no pains to instil nobler sentiments of worth into their children's minds than what are now too prevalent. Common notions as to what gives rank are essentially vulgar, and until these are displaced the mixing of grades in a school will always be accompanied by insolent assumption on one hand and a rude contempt on the other. We can scarcely hope to drive these unmannerly habits of feeling and conduct from our schools while we retain them in our churches.

7. There are difficulties connected with differences of social rank, apart from feelings of narrow pride, arising from difference of previous training and habits and difference of future prospect. How these difficulties may best be met I am not prepared to say. The terms of the school and the religious belief of the head will always more or less classify pupils.

8. I believe it, from a long experience, to be in every way most desirable; but there is a division made for us which cannot be passed, viz., the school which begins with the Latin grammar and that which ends with it.

9. I believe that boys never trouble themselves about the social rank of their associates unless they are acted upon by some outside influence, such as the visits of rich friends in showy carriages, letters or advice from parents, or masters as to maintaining their distinction and making it known at school; and as this is generally done, my experience leads me to believe schoolfellows should be as nearly as may be of equal grade in society. With wisdom among the elders the more varied the social conditions of the boys' homes the better.

10. It is most desirable to bring together in the same school scholars of widely different social grades. Each grade brings to the common stock the virtues peculiar to it and checks the vices of the others; *e.g* the middle classes have liberality from the higher, and the higher have thrift from the middle; both learn self-denial from the lower, while the forms of evil which obtain in each class are stronger and generally repulsive to the others. The

difficulty in the way of doing this is more apparent than real. Let the school be good, and all come to it.

Instruction (Boys).

XVII. *What are the relative values of the following subjects* (1) *as means of mental training* (2) *for practical purposes?*

(*a*) *Language.—Latin, Greek, French, German, English.*

(*b*) *Science,* 1. (*Pure*).—*Arithmetic, algebra, Euclid.* 2. (*Applied.*)—*Physics, astronomy, chemistry.*

(*c*) *Facts, e.g., History, geography, &c.*

(*d.*) *Art.—Drawing, music.*

1. Latin, Greek, German, French, English is the order that expresses my sense of their relative values. For (*a*), English, French, Latin, German, Greek; for (*b*), botany and natural history for young boys. Animal physiology, geology, mechanics, and chemistry for older boys are very valuable. Euclid should not be taught to young boys. Algebra is more suitable to lads under 15, and then physics, Euclid, &c. (*c*) necessary for (*b*). Drawing is very desirable, especially for (*b*), and where there is a taste for it, music is a most desirable accomplishment, and productive of much innocent amusement and recreation. All boys who have any taste or ear might, at least, be taught to sing at sight. English poetry, learnt by heart, supplies the mind with pabulum in vacant hours, and poetry of other languages is also very useful to those who are learning them.

2. In mental training I think that Greek is most valuable, next Latin, and then English, French, and German. For practical purposes Latin is of more value than Greek. Adopting the same division, I should say that pure mathematics are especially valuable for the first object. History is more a matter of memory, and does not I think train the mind of a boy so well as the study of a language and mathematics; though the most remarkable events, as well as the leading features of geography, should be learnt by a boy as matters of interest and of practical value, and as tending to correct the narrowness which an exclusive study of language and mathematics may tend to foster.

3. Its place of late as an educational influence may be taken in an English department by a very scientific teaching of English language and grammar, and of universal grammar. In a case within my experience this was taught so thoroughly and so scientifically as to form a very adequate substitute for Latin, even as studied in public schools, and the upper boys did not, I think, at all suffer from not learning Latin. Educationally, however, they might have been deficient in it as a particular branch of knowledge.

4. Latin is the first of all subjects, both for practical purposes and as a means of mental training. Next to Latin I should place geography and history, especially modern history. Arithmetic also should be taught, and a limited amount of algebra and Euclid. Drawing and music should not be taught, except to those who show a special aptitude for these subjects; nor should I advise the teaching of modern languages in a middle-class school, except perhaps the French grammar. In reading geography and history attention should be paid to the analysis of sentences, and English poets might be read two hours every week. Three mornings a week scholars should be compelled to learn lessons by heart, as much as 40 lines of a poet, at a time, and 20 lines of a prose writer. I should have no lecturing. One original composition in English or Latin prose every week.

5. History and geography, and other studies which are cognisant only of facts, must rank very low as a means of mental training, because they do little more than cultivate the memory. They may, however, do something towards improving the narrative and descriptive powers, which are very important, and very much wanted in after life.

6. Transpose the order (*a*) (*c*) (*b*) (*d*).

7. As a means of mental training I believe Latin to be the best language and Euclid the best science. For practical purposes English and French—French rather than German, because French is more generally spoken. So few

boys in middle-class schools learn Greek, and those who do learn so little that it scarcely serves the purpose of mental training at all.

8. I believe that much of the advantage supposed to be inherent in the nature of classical studies, as a means of mental training, arises from the extraneous circumstances which give ardour in the pursuit of it, *e.g.*, its honours and profits. I should like to see the experiment fairly tried of a study of English with the same amount of critical nicety and collateral illustration, as with the classic authors, as a means of mental training, using freely one modern language at least to explain idioms, &c. I think any course of education should embrace a proper proportion of (*a*) abstract science (as grammar, mathematics, &c.); (*b*) use of language; (*c*) habit of observation; and that these should be imparted by teaching such subjects as the future destination of the boy will require.

9. That which is best for mental training is in the long run best for practical purposes. Our best Latin scholars have been the best ploughboys, the best needlewomen, the best servants, the best shopmen and women, the best tradesmen; the best settlers in Australia; and they have done better than the best scholars from neighbouring schools, where what are called practical subjects were more taught.

XVIII. *What are the advantages or disadvantages of the following methods, and for what subjects is each adapted?*

(*a*) *Task-work, learning the ipsissima verba of a text-book.*
(*b*) *Printed catechisms.*
(*c*) *Oral questioning.*
(*d*) *Collective class instruction.*
(*e*) *Lecturing; not catechetical.*
(*f*) *Reproduction of lessons in writing.*
(*g*) *Original composition.*

1. Oral questioning of a class, drawing out the knowledge of boys, and testing their attention to, and remembrance of matters previously explained to them is the method of methods in all subjects. A lecture, not catechetical, is not, I think, of much value, as, unless continually aroused by questions, a boy's mind is generally apt to wander, and he often fancies that he knows this or that until he is required to explain or answer some questions on the subject in hand. In all subjects I continually refer by questioning to former lessons in the same subject, so as to try to make sure the successive advances. Original composition is valuable in the case of a few, but for most boys I doubt its value except in very simple subjects.

2. (*c*) "Oral questioning" should, when the "*ipsissima verba*" have been learned, pull the subject to pieces, and force the boy to reproduce in his own words. Besides, it would help him to assimilate his mental food and make it his own.

3. The pupils are compelled to think in a written examination; in an oral one they often answer impulsively and without thought.

4. (*a*) Advantages.—Cultivation of a particular sort of memory (not the most useful). Accuracy in reading and listening. Disadvantages of task-work are enormous. Needless fatigue promotes parrot-like habit of repeating without understanding, too often substituted by the teacher for his own exertion and skill in imparting knowledge.

(*c*) Oral questioning is perhaps the very best method of enhancing the value of what knowledge the pupil has gained for himself. It clears his mind and enables him more easily to separate truth from error, besides impressing more deeply on his memory what he has learned, and opening his faculties as a teacher.

(*g.*) Letters to friends and simple accounts of any common object. The mere putting down on paper the thoughts awakened by any event or object are all most useful exercises as a means of mental training and also for practical purposes. The writing, spelling, grammar, punctuation, choice of words, each furnish special points for care and improvement.

(*i.*) Generally speaking, teaching by oral questions and collectively may fairly be considered as the type of what instruction should be. The freedom and absence of mechanical restraint which characterises it tends to an intelligent and not parrot-like comprehension of the subject taught, while numberless opportunities arise in which the superior information and culture of the masters may influence the scholars. The emulation afforded by class instruction is also a strong incentive to exertion on the part of the scholars.

XIX. *Taking* one *of the three cases, viz., that of* (1) *a boy leaving school at* 14 *for business;* (2) *one leaving at* 16 *for a profession;* (3) *one proceeding to the university, what should a good school have done for him—*

(*a*) *As to actual knowledge.*
(*b*) *As to intellectual discipline.*
(*c*) *As to the cultivation of a taste for reading.*
(*d*) *As to definite dogmatic instruction in the truths of religion?*

1. (1.) (*d*) Nothing, except knowledge of Scripture.
(2.) (*c*) Much; by reading as many good authors as possible with a teacher acquainted with them, who can point out excellence and defect.

2. (1) A boy leaving school at 14 for business should read and write well, know arithmetic thoroughly, have a knowledge of book-keeping and French.
(2) At 16, in addition to the above, he should be a good Latin and French scholar, have a sound knowledge of at least four books of Euclid, algebra, and be a good historian.
(3) At 18 his knowledge of Latin and Greek should be as perfect as possible as also his pure geometry and algebra, whilst his English history should not have been neglected.

4. Supposing the boy of fair abilities if he be leaving at 16 for business or profession, as the case with most of the writer's pupils, he ought to have acquired—

a. 1. A fair knowledge of English, French, and Greek or Roman history.
2. Have read one or two Latin authors, *e.g.*, some Cæsar, Virgil, Cicero, or Horace.
3. A fair knowledge of French, having read one or two French authors and been practised in composition.
4. Some knowledge of Greek or German.
5. Arithmetic, and some Euclid and algebra.
6. A fair amount of physical geography.
7. Be able to produce a respectable drawing.

b. He should have had his memory fairly exercised, be accurate and able to work to the point; he should be able also to stand two or three hours consecutive mental occupation without lassitude.

c. A large number of boys at that age begin to shrink from reading, and do it only from compulsion. If the education has been so successful as to keep this down, the pupil ought to find no difficulty nor irksomeness in spending a wet afternoon in reading.

5. A taste for literature is more often the result of surrounding influences or strong natural bias than of direct teaching; still, no doubt, something may be done in day schools and more in boarding schools by encouraging scholars to read, giving them interesting books (not too instructive), taking them to good readings and lectures, and by leading them, if possible, to take an interest in the events and men of the day.

6. A boy of 14 ought to carry with him the certificate of his having passed an examination in the necessary subjects required at the junior and senior middle-class examinations at Oxford, Cambridge, or Durham. In addition to this the lad of 16 ought to have passed at the same examination one or more subjects bearing specially on the profession for which he is intended. The lad of 18 ought to be able to pass the matriculation examination required by the London University.

7. Case I.—
(*a*) He should read, write, and spell accurately, be thoroughly conversant with arithmetic and commercial accounts, exchanges, &c.; should know the

geography of all places connected with trade, manufacture, &c; should know something of the history of England, France, Germany, America, and especially the history of the last 100 years. He should be able to translate French or German with ease, and to write well in German characters. Most of all, he should be thoroughly grounded in the simple principles of earning, spending, and saving money.

8. (*d*) "As to definite dogmatic instruction in the truths of religion," I, as a clergyman, would give him little or none. The only truth of religion I would teach him at that age would be that he will best please his heavenly Father by doing his duty. Religious feelings of love and devotion to God may be awakened and cherished all along his pupilage without a word of dogma.

9. (*a*) A boy of 14, of average ability, ought to be able to read fluently, write legibly, and spell correctly. He ought to be a fair arithmetician, and to have a tolerable knowledge of the history of his own country and the geography of the world. In the matter of languages he should be able to translate a French book, and, if he has learned Latin, to construe an easy author. He might also very well know a book or two of Euclid and a little algebra.

At 16 he ought to be a fair French scholar, to translate Latin readily, to have some knowledge of Greek and German; he ought to have read four books of Euclid, and, if a diligent boy, the sixth and part of the 11th; with as much algebra as is to be found in the elementary books on the subject, such as Todhunter's small algebra.

At 18 he ought to write Latin prose and verse readily, to be a fair Greek scholar, and to have read plane trigonometry and analytical plane geometry, with as much mechanics, hydrostatics, and optics as can be learned without the differential calculus.

10. I doubt if "definite dogmatic instruction" ever comes to much or exercises any influence over young people. Boys learn by habit and association and by *acts* of worship to love a particular form of religion; and in after life they accept the creed for the sake of the institution, with which they have thus become identified. But nobody accepts the institution for the sake of the creed; and they who think to attach young people to the church, by enforcing its dogmas, are in my opinion beginning at the wrong end, and defeating their own purpose.

XX. *Up to what period could pupils of these three several classes be taught together with advantage?*

To the age of 12 or 13 certainly, and they may in many things, be taught together till 13, or even 14. I see not the slightest reason why they should be separated at all, unless they are going in to some specific examination, for which some special subjects are set; in such cases we take into consideration the individual boy's advancement, capabilities, age, &c., and place him in the "special department" attached to our school just so long as will enable him to get up the special subjects well; but until then he remains in the general classes of the school like any other boy.

2. Pupils of these three classes might be taught together until, *e.g.*, the boy in class (1) leaves school at 14.

XXI. *There is much diversity in the opinion of teachers on these matters. Is it desirable that greater uniformity should prevail? If so, how is it to be secured?*

1. Uniformity of opinion cannot be secured. I think a certain uniformity of practice might (with advantage) be obtained in each particular kind of school, at least in the principal branches of its operations, by the action of an authorized "college of public schools examiners."

2. Yes, by persuading or encouraging them to admit the voice of the universities, through some such scheme as that of the Cambridge Syndicate, dated March 21st, 1862. This would, in time, operate on public opinion.

3. No; this diversity means that the problem is a very difficult one, and experience of many systems will at least help in working it out. Even could we feel sure that we knew what was the best system for us now, it might hamper our successors in future years to have a uniform system, and I believe uniformity would be injurious to the progress of men's minds even for the present day.

4. Only in the future by training our teachers, or by a universal system of licences.

5. It is true there is much diversity of opinion in these matters, and, abstractedly, greater uniformity is desirable; but the attempt to enforce uniformity would be disastrous. The only uniformity worth having in such matters is that which results naturally from the force of truth, and the lessons of actual experience.

6. I hardly think that is. It is better that it should be left open to meet different views.

XXII. *Is the education generally accessible to the child of the tradesman or professional man satisfactory in each of the points mentioned in Question XIX.?*

1. What are usually called commercial schools are very generally ill-managed, inefficiently taught, with little moral or religious training; they are too often money speculations. In agricultural districts they are most unsatisfactory and little attended to. Most of our farmers' sons, after 14, are sent to dissenting schools, in which I find that the Bible is often merely read, without comment or even questions put to the classes upon it; no attempt at any dogmatic instruction.

XXIII. *Are removals from one school to another frequent in your experience? If so, to what causes do you attribute them?*

1. Yes. Frequently to the whims of parents, or those of indulged children listened to by parents.

2. To an absurd belief on the part of many parents that a more expensive school is necessarily a better one, or that it is the place to which a child should be removed to finish.

XXIV. *What kind of instruction (see Question XVII.) do parents value most?*

1. According to their wisdom they value solid instruction and good training, according to their folly they value the decorations of instruction most.

2. Some think more of a pretty well-touched up and finished drawing than any amount of sound scholarship. Most parents value good handwriting and a knowledge of arithmetic, because these are marketable qualifications. They generally prefer that their sons should know French or German rather than Latin or Greek, for the same reason. If parents, however, are themselves educated, they value sound learning above everything, and will pay well to give it to their children. It is seldom otherwise.

3. Arithmetic, drawing, French, and I am afraid the more showy accomplishments.

Instruction (Girls).

XXV. *What subjects of study interest girls most?*

1. History, natural history, and languages; but there is no existing reason why girls may not have their interest awakened for almost any pursuit.

2. Perhaps the greater number are most interested in history and music; there is no universal rule.

3. Ordinarily, in the case of young girls, those subjects which make the smallest demand on their thinking and reflective qualities; on the contrary, girls who have been taught to think and reason find most satisfaction in those studies which call their newly awakened powers into fullest exercise.

4. I think girls will learn eagerly any subject whatever brought before them by a good teacher.

XXVI. *Are there any subjects for which men are more efficient teachers than women? If so, what are they? and why?*

1. I think men teach most things better than women, and that simply because they have been trained differently and have also much more authority.

2. All subjects, except needlework and household economy, are better taught to girls by men than women, because they have more mastery of the subject and of the girls' minds.

3. I am inclined to think that in the main women, properly trained, will teach girls and young boys better than men, as they usually have more patience and tact.

4. When women really understand what they teach they are better teachers than men, the advantages resulting from the other's superior grasp of mind and power of generalization being often negatived (*i.e.* so far as the writer's experience extends) by lack of patience and of that sympathy with the immature mind of the young which is so indispensable to success in teaching.

5. Mathematics. It is impossible to say "why," unless it be from the circumstance that men are generally mathematically trained, women never. In fact, what a man or a woman may know best he or she will most probably teach best. If men generally are better teachers than women (as a matter of experience), then it would be owing to their having been better taught. There are hundreds of stupid and incapable men even amongst professing teachers whom the average governess could easily surpass. That men take such a high rank above women as teachers is due more to social causes than to any inherent incapacity for teaching on the part of women.

6. Masters are superior as lecturers, because they command more respectful attention.

7. Men have generally been better taught, have continued their studies to a more advanced age, are more accurate and more "exigeant;" women are more patient and more judicious in the treatment of individual pupils.

8. In most cases classics and mathematics are better taught by men, for very few women have been taught these subjects properly.

9. Young women are more easily influenced by men, and I think, therefore, the later stages of their education should be chiefly in the hands of men. Besides, men are, as a rule, better educated.

XXVII. *Is there any subject (e.g., arithmetic) at which girls are peculiarly inapt?*

1. I do not think it; I have known girls, when properly taught, become excellent arithmeticians. I would strongly advise girls having at least a thorough elementary education in arithmetic, Euclid, and algebra.

2. If "peculiarly inapt" means as compared with boys, I have not found them so. Arithmetic requires precision and brainwork on the part of the pupil, and is, therefore, always difficult to teach, but, in my experience, not more to girls than boys.

3. Science of all kinds: but this is because the pupil is generally left to work in the dark. When the principles of arithmetic or science are fully understood by the teacher and clearly explained the exceptions to a real liking for the science of numbers and to aptitude in the acquirement of a moderate proficiency in it, will, it is believed, be found to be very few. To some girls it is a captivating study.

4. I have hitherto found girls quite as apt at arithmetic as boys. As to other subjects, my experience has furnished no evidence of the superior aptitude for study of boys over girls. There are quick and stupid ones of both sexes. Girls, if anything, learn sooner to read than boys, and take earlier to study.

5. I think not. Up to 20 at least they are quicker than boys.

6. I do not believe that girls are, by nature, less apt at arithmetic than boys. If the same pains were taken with them they would become quite as ready at figures. In France women are made good accountants. Why should English women fail in such an art if they were well taught. I think that if, for a few years, girls were taught arithmetic by men, and the same stress were laid on this branch of their education, as is the case with boys, not only would they cipher as well, but there would then be found among them good teachers of arithmetic for girls and little boys, and both are much wanted.

XXVIII. *Are girls less able than boys to concentrate their attention for a given time on a subject which demands severe thought?*

1. No; they are quite able, mentally and physically, to bear protracted strain on the attention.

2. I think them less able, simply as far as difference of education and disci-

pline has made them so. I think, when, and in proportion as they are treated like boys, they would be found capable of the same severe thought in degree, but not in duration.

3. That there may be no difference later on, I do not pretend to say; but, as boys and girls, the only difference I have found is that girls are more easily taught, because they are, as a body, more industrious.

4. This depends entirely on the mental and physical strength of the girls. Energetic, earnest-minded girls enjoy examinations, and would go through a protracted course with pleasure; but we have found that often a greater reaction than is desirable takes place. Much depends on the physical strength of girls, for, when growing, the powers of the mind are sometimes enfeebled, and great mental strain may in that case be prejudicial. But with physical strength, in a general way, the same system of mental training which boys undergo may be pursued with regard to girls, particularly if not (as frequently is the case) that parents are more anxious about accomplishments than solid learning.

5. Certainly under the present system, when their education is begun upon this supposition. The cause of the faulty education of women is this, that they are supposed to be equally useful, or rather useless, whatever may be the culture of their minds, some even of the most sensible men, who rule public opinion, preferring them in a state of uncultivated simplicity; the supply, of course, is not much greater than the demand. Again, their talents cannot be turned to as much account as those of men therefore fathers are not willing to pay as much for the education of girls as of boys; and as the education demanded for girls is of an inferior class, one schoolmistress or governess is required to undertake the duties of four or five tutors. Education at present is not the education of a human mind for eternity, but the preparation of a boy or girl for certain duties of this life, and inasmuch as a certain enlargement of mind is supposed to be necessary in the case of a boy he receives it, but it is not so in the case of a girl; in fact, her education and after duties seem alike to prevent continuous thought, her mind is presented with a succession of diverse subjects for thought, and she soon finds that the less attention she concentrates on any one the more ready she is for the others; the result certainly is, that "girls are less able than boys to "concentrate their attention for a given time on a subject which demands severe "thought."

6. I think not, up to the age of 14 or 16. There is no telling what equal training might discover in this direction.

7. In 35 years' experience as a teacher I have met with very few boys who were able to concentrate their attention on a subject which demands severe thought; and even supposing girls less able than boys it seems to me to be all the more needful to exercise as far as may be the faculty in which they are deficient in order to strengthen it. I think myself, that if the elder girls in a school were taught geometry (say one book of Euclid) in the same way in which it is taught, or ought to be taught, to boys.

8. No; they are quite capable of bearing long written examinations also.

XXIX. *Is there any reason why their intellectual discipline should be less exact and systematic than that given in the best boys' schools?*

1. I believe the physical training and education of girls demands attention as well as the intellectual. The mental energy of a girl too often succumbs to the weakness of her body. With a frame peculiarly sensitive to all external influences there is little done to strengthen it and give it a healthy tone. But this evil begins long before she enters on school life, when her nurse tells her she is a girl and must not run and scream and dirty her dress, &c., like Master Tom. She must be neat and quiet and prettily behaved, and she shall have her blue sash on, &c., &c.; and very soon the little creature looks on at first with envy, and afterwards with disapprobation, at her brother's rougher sports. Then, with an enervated frame, she is consigned to the long hours for study and the short hours for recreation of the boarding school, where, again, "lady-like deportment" is insisted on. There ought to be a playground with suitable calisthenic appliances attached to every girls' school. Animal physiology, some knowledge of the laws on which health depends ought to be taught in every school.

2. No. I believe that girls in England have not had a fair chance, the

throwing open middle-class examinations to them would be of immense service.

3. I believe not, as a general rule. It should be equally exact and systematic as far as it is carried, but from the different employment of a girl's after life it need not, in most cases, advance so far. But fancy needlework and all such frivolities should be banished from every school-room, and the previous intellectual discipline of the teachers should have fitted them for their rank.

4. In National schools it will be found, as a rule, that up to the age of about 14 the girls, in reading, composition, and general intelligence, are in advance of the boys, supposing them to receive the same instruction.

5. Even in those schools where two hours of the girls' time are very properly occupied with needlework the rule will generally hold good. Where an opposite result is reported it will probably be found that the master receives more κυδος or κερδος for the advancement of the boys; or that he has formed a false estimate of the capabilities of the other sex, or (as is most frequent) he has been inoculated by lady visitors with the small idea that girls ought not to receive the same instruction as boys, for that the alpha and omega of their education is needlework.

6. No. Not the very smallest reason. Every reason the other way. The frequent uselessness and negligence of women is due to their slipshod education and to the want of that intellectual discipline which is necessary to girls, even more than to boys, in order to correct their somewhat excessive tendency to imagination.

7. The system of mental training ought to be the same for boys and girls. The studies by which that training is effected may vary in some points. I believe the training ought to be more insisted on in the education of girls than in that of boys, almost because their after life does not teach women accuracy as it teaches men.

8. It is because the intellectual discipline of girls is less exact and systematic than the discipline of boys that women are often less accurate than men.

XXX. *What are the relative values (in the education of girls) of the several subjects of instruction enumerated in Question XVII.?*

1. I consider the exact sciences to be of the greatest moment, inasmuch as they strengthen the mind by using it to continuous efforts.

2. German can do all for girls that Latin does grammatically for boys.

3. Girls may study, with profit, Latin and French, as well as arithmetic and pure geometry; but it is in history and geography that they would be most likely to excel, as well as in music and drawing.

4. Science, both pure and applied, seems to be the study the most calculated to counteract the diffuse tendency of a girl's home and self-education. Latin or Greek, English, French, and German. Arithmetic, algebra, Euclid. History, geography, &c. Music and drawing (dependent on individual taste and promise of talent).

5. I have found the best results follow from teaching the principles of what may be called universal grammar chiefly in connexion with English, and then proceeding to the grammar of some other language. Italian answers the purpose quite as well as French; in some respects German is perhaps superior to either. But there is no study in which so much seems to me to depend upon the teacher. Unless she has a real love and aptitude for the study, not merely of grammar but of language in general, a quick perception of shades of meaning, a faculty of explanation at once clear, lively, and interesting, a facility at giving examples, a power of bringing to bear on every successive grammar learned by the pupil, whatever of other grammars has been learned before, either by way of resemblance or of contrast, an insight which shall enable her so to generalize rules as to diminish exceptions or reduce even these to system, I am convinced the progress made will be little more than mechanical, and the study most irksome to the pupil. History, again, is most valuable for the same purpose, if taught intelligently; if, from the very first, maps, chronological tables, and genealogies are consulted, if the teacher supplements all deficiencies in printed genealogies by writing one herself in the presence of the pupil whenever required, if she is herself deeply interested in history, always adding to her knowledge of it, always bringing one history to bear upon another,

always evidently liking to clear up any doubt for her own sake as well as the pupil. Historical genealogies I have found to afford a most useful exercise of the memory, as well as of the clearness of intellect required for disentangling a subject.

6. Latin renders every continental language easier of attainment. We should only be too glad if parents would allow every one of our pupils to learn Latin as early as possible. In our opinion French and German grammar do not do for girls what Latin does for boys.

7. Latin helps on the thorough knowledge of English, and is easily comprehended by girls as well as boys, if they are apt to understand grammar, but there are few thorough grammarians among girls.

8. Either French or German, if properly taught, may do much; but I think it desirable in our middle rank of life, where so much time is devoted to study, that every girl learn Latin, so as to make her understand her own language. One branch at least of natural history I think desirable to give them habits of observation.

XXXI. *What other subjects should be added to complete the education of a woman?*

1. First principles of social science; hygienics, physiology, &c.; needlework, plain and ornamental; cooking; thorough knowledge of household work of every description.

2. Needlework and social science.

3. Acquaintance with things which will make them more fully at home, in the kitchen, the market, and the wardrobe.

XXXII. *Is it desirable that all girls should learn (a) music, (b) drawing? If not, how many (i.e., what proportion) of the girls in any school may be advised to spend time on these subjects?*

1. Accomplishments ought not to be cultivated in too great number, but those which are taught should be carried as near to perfection as possible. This cannot be the case if the limited time given to accomplishments be subdivided for several branches. Talent and natural capabilities ought to fix the choice. However, as culture is often necessary to draw out talent, every child might have a good trial in different branches, care being taken not to waste much time where inclination (which in matters relating to the fine arts is a sure criterion) is entirely wanting.

2. I think it is questionable whether girls, who have no ear for music and no taste for drawing, should ever be burdened by learning either; it can do them no good, and will certainly give others no pleasure. When they have but moderate ear or taste, I think it should be cultivated up to a certain point, because it might be improved, and might be made both useful and pleasurable. Every girl in every school (whose station in life or probable calling could justify her doing so), if she have good ear and taste, should most decidedly learn both, but especially music.

3. All girls should learn enough of music and drawing to open some views of it to the mind. Only those who possess decided ability for them should spend much time on these subjects.

4. Decidedly for a certain time, as these talents develop in some girls more than in others. Music teaches patience and application; drawing, order, neatness, and exactness. But it is a great waste of time to follow up these accomplishments when after a time no decided taste for them is observed.

5. Certainly not. (*a*) The proportion of pupils who have a decided taste for music is scarcely one in ten. (*b*) As a certain degree of proficiency may be attained by all girls in this art, and as its tendency is to cultivate the power of close observation, and to correct false ideas of forms, proportions, perspectives, &c., I am disposed to answer in the affirmative.

6. It is most undesirable that all girls should be taught music and drawing; only those should be so taught who show a special aptitude for these subjects.

7. No. Certainly not, unless they show a decided talent for either or both of these accomplishments.

8. All girls should be taught music and drawing, so far at least as to ascertain whether they have an aptitude for such things.

9. Certainly not. I should wish to let no girl learn music unless she especially wishes it. To encourage the wish I should let her hear good music, if possible, and let them learn class-singing. In my school, of 17 boarders and three day scholars I consider that four girls have a decided taste for music, four a decided dislike to learning it, and the rest are average pupils.

10. I think all girls should learn to draw the outlines of simple objects, except the very few who have but little power to perceive differences in form. I think that about one-half of the girls in a school would show sufficient talent in music to justify the devotion of time to it.

XXXIII. *To what departments of a girl's education do parents generally attach most importance?*

1. To accomplishments.

2. Among the middle classes parents have mistaken notions upon the subject; showy acccomplishments are far too much admired. Flashy boarding schools have spoiled many girls for life to their own and their parents' sorrow.

3. To what are generally called "accomplishments," *e.g.*, drawing (however slight), music (however slight), and fancy needlework, which is a subject that should never be taught in schools.

4. To what are called the accomplishments, drawing, music, dancing, graceful manners, &c.

5. The outside. Accomplishments best adapted to entice young men into offers of marriage.

6. Languages and accomplishments.

7. The poor and the ill-remunerated in the middle classes to that which is conducive to maintenance; the well-to-do and ambitious to that which gratifies small pride.

8. The great regret which we have is, that parents wish their girls to learn too many accomplishments, when the time would be often much better employed in strengthening the mind with solid learning which would in after life make them better companions and mothers. Another drawback is their removal at too early an age, as girls do more real good at school from 16 to 18 than at any other time; they then appreciate the value of time and education. Too frequently also they are sent to finish (as it is called), for perhaps only a year or a year and a half, when their earlier education has been most defective.

Teachers.

XXXIV. *What are the qualifications, and what have been the previous occupations of—*

(*a*) *Schoolmasters,*
(*b*) *Governesses,*
(*c*) *Assistant teachers, of either sex?*

1. The qualifications of masters of middle-class schools are doubtless inferior to those of certificated masters, and several of them, after failing in business, have taken to teaching.

2. All masters of the higher schools should be graduates of some university, as a rule, both head masters and assistants.

3. Poverty compels many ladies to become teachers, who, from their training and habits are utterly unfit for the occupation.

4. The training colleges supply a very large proportion of the assistant male teachers; they are for the most part men of irreproachable character and worthy to be trusted in any school.

5. The qualifications of schoolmasters, governesses, and assistant teachers differ in the greatest possible degree; one being highly educated, another quite the reverse, and there is the greatest possible variety in their previous occupations. It may, however, be worth considering whether this diversity of source from which the teaching body is derived may not give a more varied and comprehensive character to their instructions than would have been the result of the teaching of a set of persons all cast in one mould in a training college.

XXXV. *Is it in regard (a) to acquirements, or (b.) to skill in teaching that improvement is most to be desired?*

1. To both. In higher schools, to skill in teaching; in lower schools to acquirements.

2. Though they may and often do possess plenty of positive knowledge and skill in teaching, there is often great want of tact and judgment in guiding and ruling their pupils; in short, their teaching is generally too mechanical and forced.

3. As far as I have had an opportunity of observing I have found not so much want of skill in teaching as deficiency in acquirements on the part of schoolmasters. Most of them give up reading entirely when they begin to teach, and trade on the stock of information they possessed when they left college till the end of the chapter.

4. In skill in teaching. In the larger schools too much weight, I think, is given to university honours when appointments are made. In the smaller schools there are many incompetent teachers, but the trustees are often incapable of judging who is the best man, and the stipend is often too small to attract a good man.

5. To skill in teaching. Very often we see a very clever man who is absolutely incapable of imparting any information to his pupils. Very often dull and uninteresting subjects are given, which are far beyond the comprehension of the scholars. I have heard that in some Sunday schools in Yorkshire the only things that the children read are the books of Ezekiel and the Revelations; and this would illustrate my meaning. Or, again, the same books are read over and over again (as used to be the case at Eton). I met the other day a child who told me that she was going to change schools, and on my asking the reason said, that at the school where she was before they read the same things over and over again, and that she knew them by heart.

6. I am persuaded that improvement is to be desired, not in classical and mathematical acquirements, but in a general knowledge of history, geography, and physical and natural science, all of which should be more or less cultivated in a well managed school, and also in aptitude and skill in teaching.

7. I am inclined to think in acquirements; that is in having solidly and thoroughly learned whatever they profess to teach. A person who has mastered any subject is in the nature of things at least so far qualified to teach it that she knows:—1. What difficulties it presented to her own mind. 2. By what means she overcame them. 3. How much had to be done before the end was attained. 4. At what points other studies were found to bear on its illustration or completeness. But a teacher whose competence to teach any branch of knowledge consists simply in competence to read about it with the pupil is no more than a fellow student; not so much as that, unless they do together all that is necessary for its thorough attainment, consulting books of reference, &c.

XXXVI. *Would the establishment of training colleges for middle-class teachers be attended with good results?*

1. I think they would for the lower assistant masters, who have no diploma or similar guarantee; otherwise not.

2. Could not the would-be teachers of the middle-class schools be taken for instruction into our present training colleges which most probably will be found only too glad to have such occupants of their vacant space, both dormitories and school forms? I have no doubt certificates would have more value in the eyes of the middle class; but the middle classes are very independent in their notions, and will only follow their own inclinations and ideas they cannot be driven, they may be led, and fashion has weight. The establishment of training colleges, if successful, would undoubtedly tend to elevate the class of assistant-masters both in attainments and fitness for imparting to others. But there seems to me one great stumbling-block in the way of any improvement in the class of assistants, viz., its unremunerative character as an occupation. Parents of scant education themselves are unable to discern between a *bonâ fide* and a pretentious education, and are taken by the proposals of a school engaging to educates for 5*l.* less. To effect this cheapness recourse is had to various expedients, the principal being cheap ushers. There are scores of assistant-masters whose remuneration is 30*l.* a

year with board and lodging, and after 10 years of service the advance in remuneration will be but slight. With such indifferent prospects financially I should much question whether any young men would expend the number of unremunerating years which a specific training implies. There is something also in the treatment to which assistant-masters are often subjected, and which detracts from the prospects of their class. Boys, parents, and too often their employers, deny them that sympathy which their laborious life demands, and this makes men of some refinement shrink from it.

3. It would be most prejudicial, for it would imply that the teachers must be taken from the training college; trustees would be much biassed by the testimonials and honours of the college; in short, a general uniformity and mediocrity would become the marked characteristics of middle-class teachers, they would soon sink to the level of ordinary Government employés. Men would be "brought up to it" from the age of 14, instead of "taking to it" when their powers are matured, and they know what their special bias is at the age of 22. I see no objection to certificated masters in elementary endowed schools.

4. To allow none to teach but those who had been passed by the training colleges would improve the schools wonderfully, and set a large number of young persons at liberty to undertake domestic service, for which they are better fitted.

5. I doubt whether you would persuade teachers to use them.

XXXVII. *If so, under what authority and at whose expense should such institutions be founded?*

1. The authority of the Privy Council. They should be partly self-supporting but assisted by Government.

2. If the schools are thoroughly national and undenominational these training schools should be paid by Government, the most legitimate sphere of Government support. But if the schools are, as now, denominational, each denomination should pay its own training school, unless the Government had training schools in which no distinctive creed is taught, open to all.

3. Private subscription, if possible, aided by Government grant.

4. Under the authority of a department of State, and at the expense of Government.

5. Special training for the masters of middle-class schools is greatly needed. This might be had, I think, in the training schools which already exist by the establishment of an extra department; the experiment now making in the training school at York will perhaps help the solution of that question.

6. I should think they might be nearly self-supporting.

XXXVIII. *Would a system of certification and registration of qualified teachers be beneficial?*

1. Such a system would doubtless be the means of supplying the principals of schools with a better class of assistants.

2. There is no reason to doubt that this system would work as well in the matter of education as it does in medicine, law, &c.; that is, it would ensure a moderate average of ability in the profession. I trust sincerely these measures may be carried, as, until they are, no great improvement in female education can be looked for, nor can those engaged in it expect to enjoy the consideration which is their due, and the want of which is often felt in the relation of teacher and scholar.

3. Principals would be as thankful for English teachers, under those circumstances, as they are for a French teacher with a certificate from the Hotel de Ville at Paris.

4. Not if it were to result in giving a monopoly of teaching to a particular set of men to the exclusion of uncertificated teachers, but if a healthy competition were kept up from without it might be useful.

5. In my opinion nothing else will ever attain the object of educating the middle classes or protect ignorant parents from being duped by the incapable.

6. A system of certification and registration appears to me to be so urgently required that I look upon its institution, soon or late, as a matter of certainty.

7. Yes, provided that the diplomas were not granted by a Government office.

XXXIX. *If so, by what body should diplomas be granted?*

1. By the universities, or a body similar to the Medical Council.

2. Diplomas might be given, after examination, by a board appointed by the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, and London.

3. By a board of examiners, chosen from the universities and public schools throughout the country.

4. By the universities, or by a Central Board of Education, wholly detached from religious denominations.

5. The Government should be the body from which the certificates originated and derived their authority; but the Government might grant through the instrumentality of the Universities or other educational establishments, special licenses or charters being granted to examine and report upon the qualifications of candidates for teaching. In fact, nearly the same system might be adopted as is at present in force with regard to officers and captains of vessels in the merchant service of Great Britain. Under this system a board, composed chiefly of shipowners, but assisted by a certain small number of Government nominees and *ex-officio* members, appoints, examines, and conducts the examination of candidates for the post of mate or master of a merchant ship; it reports the results of the examinations to the Board of Trade, and from this body (*i.e.*, from a branch of the central government) the certificates of competence are issued to the successful examinees. In the same way the universities might be empowered to examine candidates who wished to become teachers or schoolmasters, and on a report sent by them to the Education Committee of the Privy Council, certificates of fitness to follow their intended profession might be issued to the candidates from this branch of the Government.

6. By a body constituted for the purpose, independent and perhaps appointed by the universities.

7. In the first instance, a degree from any English university, or from Trinity College, Dublin, or any other equally satisfactory proof that a man has had a good general education, would be the best of all diplomas. Next after that would come a certificate given by a board of examiners of undoubted ability and impartiality; such men, for example, as examiners of the London University, and I would have the profession of a teacher prohibited to those who had not passed the requisite examination. Nothing but experience will enable a man to teach well, though some of course are more apt than others. Nor could a man's fitness to impart knowledge be ascertained *a priori*; but at least, it might be found out whether he has that knowledge to impart. Why should not teachers be subjected to as stringent rules as medical men, who are not allowed to commence practice without satisfying a competent board of examiners that they have studied their profession?

8. Perhaps in a similar way to that of the medical diplomas: *i.e.*, 1. By the work done in the normal or training college. 2. By some central national board.

XL. *Have any means occurred to you whereby the status of teachers, as a professional class, might be improved in this country?*

1. Education will never be what it ought to be until we have general inspection of schools and properly authorized and certificated teachers, both principal and assistants.

2. Only by receiving higher education and making education more attractive, and therefore it and themselves more highly appreciated.

3. My hope for improvement in them is in the advance of education itself throughout England. If the time should ever come that in England, as in Prussia, no man can get employ without a certificate of education, an impetus will thereby be given which will create a demand for labourers, and with the demand their condition will rise.

4. Diplomas would be useful; but it is questionable whether these would be generally sought unless inducements, not yet in exercise, were brought to bear.

5. By the system of certification, &c., mentioned in No. XXXVIII.

6. Only the one suggested by the 38th question, which for years I have wished to see in operation. I think, however, that the success of pupils in public examinations might be taken instead of personal examination by the teacher, or at least allowed to count for a good deal in reckoning his fitness.

7. I think that if they were recognized as constituting an organized profession, instead of a heterogenous band of all degrees of intellectual attainment and power as well as social status, they would enjoy more popular favour; at present, I believe, a man is rather lowered than raised by virtue of his employment as a teacher.

8. I think one main cause of their present depression is a mistake both on the part of their employers and on their own, as to what is to be sought for: If there were more general concurrence as to the object to be realized and the kind of instruction to be desired, the means of realizing this aim would soon be found.

1. Both sides ought to be aware that no one person can be a proficient in each and all of the acquirements expected from most governesses; various languages indeed, varied intellectual and literary attainments may fairly be looked for in the same person, because these things play into each other's hands; what improves one tends to improve all, and an intelligent mind adds to its stores in hours of recreation and social intercourse no less than in hours of study. Not so with such accomplishments as music and drawing, kept up and perfected as they are only by the direct devotion of a large amount of time; what is given to them is so much taken from every other pursuit. 2. Both sides ought also to have a wholesome dread of cramming—a process injurious to mind and body, and tending to defeat its own end; but almost forced upon really competent governesses, while parents suppose it possible for a girl of 17 or 18, of average capacity, to leave the schoolroom a proficient both in solid knowledge and in elegant accomplishments. This cannot be; but she may and ought to leave it with habits of accurate thought and expression, with the foundations of much useful knowledge solidly laid, with a taste for literature, a love of study and research, a sense of the incompleteness of all she has yet done, a power of bringing her faculties and previous attainments to bear on whatever new subject is presented to her, and an earnest will to do thoroughly whatever she does at all. When parents feel that such a girl has received the full benefit of the education they have perhaps denied themselves to give her they will more truly appreciate the person employed in imparting it; the tone of mind and attainments of a governess will become far more than, at present, those of an intellectual and literary woman, and her status will rise with herself.

9. If teachers, male and female, could pass general and special examinations and obtain certificates of general knowledge, or if knowledge in special subjects from the universities, and if schools were, as a rule, examined, the improvement would be very great.

10. If authors, scientific men, and artists of eminence would make teaching a part of their own duties, they would cause the function of the teacher to be looked upon with more general respect.

11. The status has hitherto been low, because so many have resorted to teaching through poverty, or failure in other callings. Let the authority to teach be attainable only through reasonable difficulties, such as study, expense, diplomas, &c., and then let the qualifications of teachers be gradually raised, and the reproach of the vocation will die out.

Tests of the Works done in Schools.

XLI. What opinion have you formed as to the effect of the Oxford and Cambridge and other examinations on the education given in middle-class schools?

1. I fear the result has been to somewhat disorganize schools, and may have led to the neglect of less promising lads.

2. That it naturally tends to, and actually produces a vicious system of cram; that it enables the proprietor of any school to deceive the public by advertising such as succeed and suppressing all allusion to failures; that the success of a few picked and crammed pupils is no index of the general condition of a school, which is often, on the contrary, neglected to secure their success.

3. That such examinations have had only a very limited effect; the great body of the schools most wanting examination being unwilling because unprepared to have it.

4. My opinion of the effect of the Oxford examinations, with which I have been connected for some years, is that they have done much to stir up the teachers of middle-class schools and to promote a wholesome emulation among them. In reading and writing, the improvement has been very great and the general style of the work is incomparably better than it was when the examinations first commenced. The great evil to be avoided, and as far as possible discouraged is, that abominable system of cramming which almost always follows on the naming of definite books for examination.

5. A very favourable one. It requires great extension and should be carried into the very heart of a school; all the scholars should be examined yearly; those above 10 years of age (or in certain classes) twice a year at least by the university examiners employed for this purpose and under the control of a central Government board.

6. I consider the effect highly beneficial, provided only that whilst some pupils are being prepared, the rest are duly attended to. It would have been an improvement, in my opinion, if a full year's notice could be given, and the Prayer Book and Church Catechism omitted in the programme.

7. That they have defined the subjects of instruction and thus have expunged much that was vague and practically worthless, and that they afford precisely the sort of stimulus required in most middle schools. They have also compelled some ambitious grammar schools to introduce new and useful subjects, which, although added with reluctance, now form the only part of their curriculum that is cared for by parents of the middle class.

8. The Cambridge examination has given already great stimulus to certain branches of study, arithmetic especially.

XLII. *Would it be desirable to open those examinations to the pupils of girls' schools?*

1. I should expect good results from public periodical examinations for girls, such as the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations: as establishing some recognized standard of attainment.

2. Not these examinations, but some others. Why should Oxford and Cambridge do everything; there are other, and ought to be many other, bodies collegiate with power of granting certificates and even degrees.

3. No. The female mind would gain at the expense of the modesty, and retiring demeanour which befit a woman. If the object for which girls should be especially educated is home, its duties, responsibilities, and pleasures, public examinations would sadly interfere with this.

4. For girls intending to become governesses or teachers in schools, it would no doubt be an advantage to have an opportunity of distinguishing themselves; and heads of families and educational establishments might be glad of some trustworthy guarantee of the qualifications of those whom they receive into their employment; but for the development of female character generally I think that public examinations are by no means to be recommended. Failure would be almost intolerable to a young woman of sensitive and delicate feeling, while success might lead to vanity, or at any rate to a spirit of independence incompatible with the social position of the weaker sex, and that vow which even female senior wranglers would no doubt sometime wish to take upon themselves. Anything that has a tendency to destroy the existing distinctions between man and woman should be looked upon with grave suspicion as an introduction of the thin end of the wedge. If women are to be examined they will in due course expect to be examiners, and there is no occupation or position now held by men to which they may not ultimately aspire. In all schemes for the improvement of female education we should bear in mind that the task before us is not the mere training of a tribe of governesses and teachers, but the development of the character and faculties of a being who was designed to be not a rival and a competitor, but a helpmate meet for man.

5. Unquestionably the education of girls and boys should be at once placed on an equal footing in respect of Government inspection, or, failing that, of university examinations.

6. If the girls are to become future teachers this test would be desirable: it would show to themselves their fitness or otherwise for the position.

7. I think not. I think a "Queen's University of London" is wanted to deal with the subject of female education.

8. Doubtful, because they lead almost necessarily to cram. Most of the parents of my pupils object to them.

9. It is impossible to judge until it has been tried, but I think it ought to have a fair trial.

XLIII. *Would periodical inspection of a whole school be preferable to the examination of a few selected scholars?*

1. Decidedly; both boys' and girls' schools should be under authoritative inspection.

2. I am decidedly in favour of an examination of the entire school. I do not find that the Oxford and Cambridge examinations have produced any great effect on the education given in middle-class schools generally. Very few can be induced to avail themselves of these tests.

3. I think that an examination of the whole school is preferable to the examination of a few selected scholars. In a great school such as ours—I think that the examinations of the school by members of the universities, together with the examinations to which a great number of the boys are constantly subjected, for scholarships or exhibitions at the universities, for the foundation and free scholarships at the school, for the navy, for entrance into solicitors' offices, &c., sufficiently secure the careful training of the boys.

4. I should be very much in favour of general inspection of schools; but I feel very little interest in favour of the examination of selected scholars, except as a palliative. This is probably most useful in schools which have no periodical test. But public and independent examinations, with reports communicated to the trustees, and published more or less in *extenso*, with the farther test of university and other successes give the highest guarantees of a schools' efficiency.

5. Such examinations would be of the highest value. They would give spirit to teachers, and to girls a definite object to study for, together with the stimulus and pleasures of ambition. They would also have the effect of bringing the subject of female education frequently and prominently into public notice. This would be of special value to schools where the age of the children would prevent their attendance in any number at the examinations. The inspections would be of great value to intelligent and candid teachers by showing them where they have failed as well as where they have succeeded; and the reports would give the public some choice in the selection of schools.

6. For inspection to be of any real use in testing the state of education in any school the whole of it should be examined, as a great show may be produced with comparatively small trouble by taking pains with a few clever boys and neglecting those of inferior talent. A good head master will take care that his school shall be good all round, by frequently hearing every form himself, and not merely polishing the senior boys. If the examination be for a prize or an exhibition, of course only the best boys need be taken.

7. This would, I think, be an admirable plan if it could be carried into effect; it would enable the inspectors to make a selection of the promising boy and one most likely to make a good teacher in any school, and to prefer him by recommending him as a pupil teacher.

8. I think an inspector's visit would marvellously improve the methods of teaching employed, especially if (as would naturally be the case) the inspector examined the children himself *viva voce*. Certainly, every school should be inspected annually.

9. I believe this plan, therefore, to be much safer and more desirable than the examination in any way of selected scholars.

10. I think both are required, but inspection could not be dispensed with.

11. I do not see why both should not be tried.

XLIV. *If so, to what public body could the duty of inspection be most safely confided? e.g.—*

(*a*) *To the Universities.*
(*b*) *To a Department of State, e.g., the Education Committee of the Privy Council.*
(*c*) *To the College of Preceptors.*
(*d*) *To a representative scholastic body similar to the Medical Council.*

1. To the Education Committee of the Privy Council.

2. To a special education department, of which the present Charity Commission might serve as a nucleus, leaving the Education Committee of Privy Council to look after primary schools. If the whole of the British Universities could agree to form a board of examiners, such as would be acceptable to all sects, I should decidedly prefer such an arrangement to a Government board.

3. I should prefer a representative body, as hinted at in XXI., which might be composed of deputies from each of these bodies, but principally from the universities. Such a body might either depute one of themselves or select any other competent examiner who (to protect the interests of the masters) should meet their examiner, and the two could agree to a report, the college examiner taking precedence. A small capitation fee (for the benefits of such an examination and guarantee) might be paid by the parents, or otherwise, of about three or four shillings per head per annum.

4. To a Department of State, examiners being selected from the universities.

5. I should be very unwilling to submit the school to the inspection of any examination except such as were appointed by the Universities or the Government, or by these two bodies combined.

22. The Education Committee of the Privy Council would be a very proper body to appoint the inspectors, but I should restrict them to persons who had taken the highest honours in one of our universities.

33. The universities and the Government inspectors of schools.

42. To the State, most safely. To the universities in the second place. Not to the College of Preceptors, as they are too personally interested, nor to a representative body. At the same time there should be "a minister of education," as one of the Secretaries of State, and his office should be supported by the leading men in the universities, independent of schools themselves, not necessarily churchmen, but selected by the Crown as Her Majesty's inspectors of schools are selected.

6. To a body chosen in equal proportions by (*a*) (*b*) and (*c*).

7. (*c*) No; too scholastic and professional.

8. (*a*) The universities could do the work best; they alone would command the respect of the country, and the fact that the school would be examined by different men, and not always by the same, would have a most beneficial effect on the examinations and on the schools.

9. To the universities.

XLV. *If annual inspection were offered to such schools as chose to avail themselves of it, would it be welcome? if not would objections come—*

(*a*) *From parents, or*
(*b*) *From teachers?*

1. Parents as a general rule would be favourable to inspection: many teachers would probably object to it.

2. From the teachers only I apprehend.

3. Such objections as are made to startling novelties would at first be made to it. I believe that, after a fair trial, the only objections made to it would come from inefficient teachers.

4. I do not know how parents could object to such inspection, unless it were because they were compelled to pay towards the expenses of such examination; and it is clear that the expense would be very considerable, as it would be absolutely necessary to appoint men of first-rate ability, considering the high academic position of so very many schoolmasters now-a-days, and also of a certain age and experience, who should have some true idea of the practical and not the ideal school-boy standard; and to completely examine a school would require very great labour. Indeed, it has always struck me that schoolmasters are dissatisfied with anything but a very extensive examination, one that covers all points, and so gives all boys an opportunity of showing their knowledge. I should say that I do not myself share this opinion. I cannot say what the feeling of schoolmasters in general would be towards such inspection. Many no doubt would be unwilling to risk it, unless it were compulsory on all, from the consciousness how far the actual attainment of a school falls short of the ideal; feeling this myself, I should yet feel that such inspection would strengthen my hands in the school, but there will be a great difficulty in drawing the line of schools which are to be open to such inspection.

5. If the inspection were gratuitous, and the inspectors men of known ability, I do not think it would be objected to by the better class of schoolmasters. Parents are not likely to oppose it, as they have nothing to lose and much to gain by inspection. There are no doubt teachers to whom it would not pay to have their educational powers tested, who would naturally object to the true condition of their schools being made known.

6. I am sure that annual inspection would gladly be accepted by a large majority of schools, especially if the annual reports were published in the local papers.

7. Proprietors generally feel the advantage of inspection by an officer of the Government who is uninfluenced by local considerations, but they are too indolent to take much trouble to secure it, and are sometimes afraid that the control will be taken out of their hands.

8. Objection would no doubt come from so-called "teachers," but, if the system were generally recognized, the objection would itself be a sign of weakness and unworthiness of the name.

9. Annual inspection would be welcome to most parents, welcome also, doubly welcome to all well qualified teachers and schoolmasters, and to none other. The only objection would arise from having some fault or weakness to hide.

10. I should like it. If parents could feel assured that it was *bonâ fide*, that the examination was quite above personal and local influence, they would regard it as valuable test. When it is, as now, conducted by a local examiner, often a clergyman having relatives or friends in the school, the examination goes for nothing and the result throws discredit on the whole transaction.

11. If annual inspection carried with it prizes to the pupils and gain to the teachers, both parents and teachers would receive the inspector with open arms.

12. I think it would be welcomed by all but inferior teachers. I do not think parents would object in any instance. Possibly some teachers might.

13. Speaking for myself it would be very welcome. The objections come mostly from parents.

14. It would have a wholesome effect, and would stimulate both teachers and pupils.

15. It would be of the greatest advantage to me and to all competent teachers. Under the present system all teachers are classed together, to the great loss of those who know their work and do it. I should esteem it a very high privilege to have an examination of my school.

XLVI. *Have you any other fact or suggestion which you think likely to be helpful to the Commissioners in the prosecution of their inquiry?*

1. No improvement in the system of education can be of much benefit which does not break in upon sectarian religious teaching, whether Church or Dissent. All national schools ought to be national in the broadest sense.

2. I would venture to point out what I conceive to be two dangers in the interference of the State in educational matters: 1st., lest it should be forgotten that the object of the State should be to turn boys into good citizens, and not merely aim at arming them with the money-making power. 2nd., lest we should override the hobby of competitive examinations. I advocate them strongly as preventives to jobbing in schools and public departments, but I hold they will tell us little as to the value of a man, a boy, or a school.

3. The Society of Friends have shewn, I think, their sagacity by making gardening one of the amusements in their school at Ackworth, and I think it cannot be denied with a most salutary effect in ensuring the orderly, industrious, and economical habits which are so remarkable in that body. I speak from experience when I say that no kind of play can be adopted more interesting to a boy than the growing and tending of garden vegetables and flowers on a small half perch of garden ground which he (like the Ackworth boys) can call his own. Wherever there is a school, either private or public, or national, this plan ought to be adopted and steadily and faithfully attended to as evening amusement. To imitate a taste for gardening is almost like adding an additional sense to the human system.

4. It has been suggested that middle-class infant schools should be established, somewhat after the same fashion as in our national schools. To

these children might be sent between the age of four and nine. The scholars in these schools would, of course, be principally day-scholars.

5. The object of a Government in encouraging education is essentially different from that of a private individual; the one wishes to arrive at the highest possible development of the capacities of some of the pupils in order to gain reputation to the school by the success of the individual; the other must desire to give the rudiments of a sound education to all its subjects, leaving it to those who have leisure to continue the work according to their opportunities. Bearing this distinction in mind, I believe that alterations in the present system must be made with regard to local requirements, and that some or all the means already mentioned may be advantageously employed.

6. Only to warn them against letting any ministers of religion (as such) have any control over the education of the country, and to pray and beseech them to do everything in their power to make education compulsory, and to bring every department of it under the direction and inspection of the State.

7. It is pretty generally allowed that the majority of men now come up to the university worse prepared than they did, say 10 years ago; this seems to point to the fact that while clever working boys are well drilled in our schools the lower boys are left to do much as they please.

8. I have often regretted the want of foundations for girls, corresponding to those for boys. I am not aware of the existence of any, except of a professional character, *e.g.*, for clergymen's daughters, &c.; but I believe myself all professional schools to be bad either for boys or girls. I suppose the want of these is owing to the destruction of religious establishments, but at all events it leaves a wide field open for Christian munificence in the present day.

1. It seems desirable that a teacher, her thorough efficiency as such once secured, should be as little as possible a mere teacher. Habitual contact with childish intellects alone, habitual contemplation of the various subjects of knowledge only as they can be presented to such intellects must greatly cramp a mature understanding and a formed taste; nor will conscientious, weary-minded study after school hours have power to recreate the freshness and elasticity of thought requisite for the assimilative processes of mental digestion. Opportunity should, as far as possible, be afforded for the governess to keep up interest beyond her schoolroom and her profession; or the pupils will, in the end, be losers.

2. The fault of our middle-class schools is that we aim at too much; girls are expected to learn everything; the consequence is that the studies which show, *i.e.*, French, German, music, drawing, &c. &c., are attended to to the detriment of arithmetic, geography, history, &c. Too much is done for the mind and too little for the development of the body.

3. I feel thoroughly that endowed schools for girls or schools with scholarships attached are very necessary, and would be highly appreciated by many professional men of small incomes, who can obtain help in the education of their sons, but none, or nearly none, in that of their daughters.

APPENDIX IV.

Special Communications.

(a) From the Rev. George Rowe on the Admission of Middle-class Students into Training Colleges.

Since the end of 1863, the number of resident students to be received in this training school (York), has been diminished from 80 to 50, while the extent of the accommodation has remained nearly the same as before: and the total number of students in Normal schools has been greatly reduced.

There are no good reasons for expecting a larger supply under present circumstances. If, as is asserted, the number of pupil teachers is diminishing; and the proportion of those who, having completed their apprenticeship, do not enter a Normal school is increasing, it would rather seem probable that even the present number of students in training schools must be still further reduced.

Ex-pupil teachers readily procure schools, and it is difficult to persuade them to forego a present advantage and to spend two years at a Normal school, for the benefit of the education and training which appears distant and indistinct.

Hence, training schools are in danger of suffering from the smaller number of men applying for admission; and also from the competition of untrained men, which lessens the prospect of immediate employment on leaving the College.

The following suggestion is made in the hope that it may offer a remedy for this state of things.

It is known that certificated masters are eligible candidates for masterships in the lower class of grammar schools, and in those endowed schools which are a step above the elementary school. Such men have been repeatedly selected to conduct schools of this description, and have succeeded in rendering them effective for the education of the children of the lower middle classes.

It is suggested, therefore, that an opportunity might be afforded at the Normal schools for the training of masters for such schools, whose appointment should be recognized by the Government, instead of as now, incurring the stigma of "desertion" or "breaking of obligations."

The chief details of this plan are these :—

I. The students of training schools should pass the same examinations as at present: and in addition, such as choose should be examined in some higher branches of instruction, *e. g.*, a Latin author, higher mathematics, chemistry, and the like; the latter (honour) examination to be void unless good marks are obtained at the former (ordinary).

II. Students passing the honour examination should be permitted to take schools of the advanced class above described, upon condition of—

(*a*) Obtaining their parchments after two satisfactory inspections in an elementary school, as now; or

(*b*) Refunding, wholly or in part, the expenses of their training.

III. Some provision must be made for the inspection of such schools; which, in effect, receive a grant, namely, of a trained master, from the Committee of Privy Council on Education.

This might be accomplished by appointing inspectors as they were required, for the number of schools requiring oversight would at first be very few. Or, a local examiner might be employed; or a local board of examiners, sending the papers up to the office in London for decision.

Whatever probability there may be of endowed or grammar schools receiving the benefit of inspection, will be in favour of allowing certificated masters to hold masterships in them without forfeiting their connexion with the Government.

The advantages to be derived from carrying out this proposal are—

1. That it would enlarge the class from which Normal schools draw their pupils, by offering an enlarged field of work for them when trained.

2. That it would thus check the emptying of the Normal schools, and tend to ensure the taking of their certificates by the trained men.

3. That the presence of a higher class of students in Normal schools would act beneficially on the others, both as to intelligence and as to moral tone.

4. That by supplying trained masters to the schools in question, a great improvement would be effected in the instruction afforded by them, to the direct advantage of the classes above the lowest, and to the furtherance indirectly of the more elementary instruction of the country.

(b) From the Rev. Dr. Holden, Head Master of Durham Grammar School, on Half-Yearly Examination after Vacation.

My dear Sir, Durham School, Aug. 20, 1866.

You requested me to give you an account of what I thought peculiar, or nearly so, to ourselves in the system followed here.

Our General Examination for removal is always at the beginning of the half-year, and not, as in most other schools, at the *end*. This applies a strong stimulus to all to do some work during the holidays. Holidays of seven, eight, and sometimes of nine weeks, are periods far too long to be lost to education; and yet they generally are lost, as the common complaint of parents testifies.

But when a boy knows that removals are made according to examination after holidays, he is obliged to make some preparation for this examination. The boy who has reached the top of his class at the end of the half-year, cannot make sure of his removal after the holidays without it. On the other hand, an opportunity is given to the less diligent to redeem themselves somewhat by their holiday work—a thing impossible according to the ordinary system.

At the same time I would not recommend that boys should have any *new* work to do for their examination; that would be hardly fair toward their holidays, but that the old work (or a portion of it for lower boys) should be revised. This puts a less strain on them, and yet answers the purpose of providing proper occupation. It also gives the boys who have been diligent during the past half-year the advantage over those who have been idle, and renders less work necessary on their part, as they have only to seize what they have before learnt and learnt well.

I much prefer this revision of the old work to the common system of holiday tasks, in which boys take little interest; because, however well done, they do not bear on a boy's advance in the school.

I have found this system to work excellently throughout the school, but especially in the upper forms, where rank is considered of most importance. I ought to say that it was the Shrewsbury system, introduced by Dr. Butler, and continued in great measure by Dr. Kennedy.

I must admit that I had, both here and at Uppingham, some little difficulty *at first* in introducing it among parents and masters to whom it was quite new. But I always found that the opposition proceeded either from the common dislike of all innovation, or from parents who were conscious that under no circumstances could they get their sons to work during the holidays, and therefore wished the sons of others to be equally idle. But since it has been established, I have had, at various times, a great amount of testimony given to its efficiency, both from parents and old pupils who have been brought up under it, and can speak from experience of its value. I am, &c.

HENRY HOLDEN.

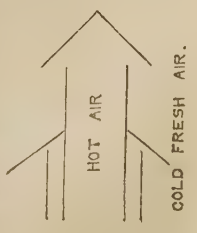
J. G. Fitch, Esq., Assistant Commissioner.

(c) From the Rev. J. H. JAMES on some SANITARY ARRANGEMENTS adopted in WESLEY COLLEGE.

OUR sanitary measures of last summer may be classified thus:—

1. Latrines at the back. Previously the conveniences used by the boys were placed in a circle round an open cesspool—one circle above another. The place was very offensive, and had, in my judgment, become very dangerous. Our committee ordered its comple destruction, and the present place, containing 24 latrines and 15 urinals, was erected from the designs of Mr. Jennings, sanitary engineer, Stangate, Lambeth, from whom you will readily obtain drawings, &c. His work cost us 200*l.*, and the work of destroying, rebuilding, nearly 350*l.* more. The effect is wonderful. The place is flushed every 24 hours, and in the hottest weather we have not had any bad smell.

2. The ventilation of the house. We have opened valve ventilators into all the class-rooms communicating with the school-room passage. At the top of the staircase is a syphon ventilator, containing an inner and an outer funnel, the former about a yard higher externally than the latter. This ventilator goes through false roof and roof into the open air, and ensures a continuous but regulated circulation, the foul air going up the long inner shaft, and the fresh air coming down the surrounding short one, thus—



This seems to answer perfectly. We have 16 others, some direct from the rooms into the fresh air, others in the false roof, with which smaller rooms communicate by means of a ventilating rose in the ceiling. The cost of this part of our work did not altogether exceed 80 guineas. There is a good deal of noise in a high wind, but that is the only inconvenience.

(d) Schools of Art.

The following communications are from the head masters of the Schools of Art in Leeds and York, and from the honorary secretary of the School of Art in Halifax. They serve to indicate the mode in which the influence of those institutions is operating upon the middle and upper schools of the district, and the degree in which their prospects of future usefulness is affected by recent legislation:—

Dear Sir, School of Art, Leeds.

The principle upon which the study of drawing is allowed in most middle-class schools is that some few pupils are gifted above others with a taste for art, and that such pupils should be allowed to study drawing and painting. This study is usually carried out in a way capable of fostering and developing certain likes or dislikes of particular subjects, and ends with giving a very small percentage of the pupils in a school a very mediocre power of reproducing a few natural effects.

In my opinion this is proceeding on a totally wrong principle. We ought to aim lower, and apply our aim indiscriminately to all. I should say, for instance, that a fair power of drawing the form of an object from the object itself in 99 per cent. of all the pupils in a school is a more valuable educational effect than if 5 or even 20 per cent. of the pupils could copy a pretty drawing or painting.

We ought not to expect that all the pupils in a school should get further in the study of drawing than they are expected to get in the study of, say language or mathematics, but we ought, on the other hand, to expect that every pupil should get at least as great a power in drawing as in these subjects.

We do not so much want in primary education to develop extraordinary power in a few individuals as to ensure an average amount of culture and development in every pupil we have charge of.

This truth, which has been long recognized in the majority of subjects, has not yet had fair play in art education. I have maintained it long, and where it has been fairly tested it has succeeded, but as yet it is not fairly tested in the greater number of our schools.

In most schools it is optional whether a pupil learns to draw or not, and thus, if he has not a liking for drawing, he leaves school utterly unable to delineate the simplest form. If we said to our pupils that it is as necessary for all men to be able to draw the shape of things, as it will be inevitable that they shall have to talk about them, and, whether they like it or not, make it part of their education, we should find that eventually the power would be acquired, and I do not see anything unreasonable in this. We know that most boys exhibit a liking for either classics or mathematics, and in proportion, as they succeed in one, feel a sort of contempt for the other; but we do not, therefore, allow them to give up the study of the elements of the subject they dislike or do not succeed in. Eventually we may allow them to follow out the bent of their own minds, but we do not allow them to grow up in utter ignorance of the subject they do not like.

In the same way, I think, we ought in common justice to the boys themselves to stand sponsor for their art powers.

Probably I have had more opportunities than most men of observing the effect of the two different ways as looking at the subject of education in art, which I have described. I teach in the Friends' School at Ackworth, where every pupil above a certain form learns to draw as part of his education. Here the right principle is applied, and the consequence is, that every pupil leaving the school must of necessity be able to draw the simple form of any object whatever presented to the eye, or described under given conditions, and required to be delineated. And I find from my experience there that the notion of there being some persons born who cannot draw is a wrong one, for every pupil there learns, and every pupil meets with encouraging success, not perhaps equal success, but at least as much as to establish the principle that 100 per cent. of the boys in a school can acquire the faculty of accurate imitation, and reproduction of forms presented to the eye.

And as this school (Ackworth), is the only school I know where drawing is not an optional subject, it is the only place where to my knowledge the experiment has been fairly tried in middle-class schools. It appears to me that

in other schools, where the drawing is optional, the pupils do not do as well, even when they elect to learn, as where every pupil has to take his share of instruction without power of choice.

I know that what I have said is contrary to the general belief, but it is utterly and entirely true, and we shall never have art education worth anything until the truth of it be recognized.

Show me a school where a boy may learn to draw or not, just as his teachers please him, or his likes or dislikes operate, and I shall see a school in which (unless very exceptionally situated) the drawing is in a bad state, or struggling against great difficulties, with but poor results. But give an art master the same power over the subjects studied as you give any other master, and let all the pupils take their turn with him as a matter of course, and if the art master be an educationist by nature and taste, the drawing will be well taught and every pupil in the school will learn to draw, and be successful.

I have about 500 middle-class pupils in schools, and I have good opportunities of seeing the results obtained in different large schools, differently situated, and proceeding upon various systems. For the last seven years I have been experimenting upon every class I have had, and carefully watching the result of these experiments; because I have felt that art education has never yet been well sifted in its application to middle-class schools, and that very crude and false notions have been held and acted upon by schoolmasters, simply from the absence of information upon the subject. And I think, after this long period of trial and observation, that I have arrived at something like a fair conclusion —which is, that every pupil is capable of learning to draw and draw successfully, up to the point where the work of imitation ends and the exercise of the imagination begins. The imparting of this instruction is easy and certain where drawing is part and parcel of the school's system of education, but a chance only when the wishes and whims of a pupil have to be consulted or a parent's notions to be obeyed.

And I think this testimony of a practical art master is of some value on this branch of education, for a different opinion is generally held.

Much harm is done to art education by the ignoring of elementary drawing in the university examinations, and the fixing of a high standard for the senior and junior students.

If instead of giving those who study drawing only an opportunity of designing a picture, such as "the meeting of Cimabue and Giotto" (given in one university examination in drawing), every candidate, old or young, had to satisfy the examiners that they had eyes to see and fingers to reproduce the form of the simplest natural object in outline, then drawing would become as necessary a part of education as grammar.

And if this were done we should in time have every person at least, able to draw well, and some would discover great powers in art.

I am, &c.

WALTER SMITH.

J. G. Fitch, Esq.,
Assistant Commissioner.

Mr. Swallow the head master of the York School of Art, says that recent changes in the administration of the department have discouraged art teachers, and seriously diminished the number of pupils. He adds; "It would seem that "the present scheme leaves to the schools two alternatives—either to be starved "out of existence, or to become middle-class schools. The aid being less the "fees are being raised, the result is that there are fewer artizans. In the "York school the advanced fees have increased the yearly total, whilst decreasing the attendance about half—the principal decrease being among the "artizans. There are no institutions that could be made more capable of "giving a sound art education to all classes, than schools of art, if they were "treated with more liberality and encouragement. That they exercise an "important influence on the middle classes, and middle-class schools, is "proved, but not as much as they might do if Government would stimulate "the middle classes by prizes and scholarships, so as to aim at a higher "standard; not a standard measured only by the stages where ornamental "art occupies the principal place, but a more liberal standard, where Fine art "might be fully recognized."

SIR, School of Art, Halifax.

I AM requested by the committee of this school to give what further explanations I can to the particulars already given by Mr. Thomas as to the influence of the Department of Art on middle-class schools.

I do not know whether it lies within your scope, but I will as well as I can explain the constitution of the various classes directly connected with the schools, as well as the particulars of the private schools taught by the master.

The principal class in the school is the evening class, in which there are at present 52 students; these consist of artizans, engineering, and architectural draughtsmen, and school or errand boys.

The ladies' morning class at present has six students, but a short time ago was much more numerously attended, and has been favoured hitherto with most encouraging results: the students are mostly young ladies who have left school, where they learnt a smattering of drawing, and now attend the School of Art to obtain a knowledge of drawing and water colour painting. The young ladies are extremely anxious to learn the real principles which lead to excellence, and as a rule are not at all wishful to make mere show drawings, but really apply themselves to learn the principles of art thoroughly. To show how successful this class has been, I may mention that one of the lady students taught entirely in this school has exhibited paintings at the exhibitions of the Society of Female Artists, and sold her productions. Several drawings by other ladies have been exhibited at the Wakefield, York, and other local exhibitions, and always with success. The ladies' class has also taken a large share of the Department's medals and prizes, and altogether has been very successful as well as profitable, owing to the comparatively large scale of payments.

The next class is what is called the "Saturday morning class," and is attended principally by teachers and pupil teachers in National Schools. The number at present is 20. This class has never at any time been a very brillant success; for as a rule the students have no desire or aptitude for art. I do not recollect that during the existence of the school more then one or two medals have been taken by teachers or pupil teachers. It has generally been observed that this class is the most irregular and unmanageable of the whole.

The only other class in connexion with the school is the "juvenile class;" there are only three on the list at present.

I will now give what particulars I can of the classes and pupils taught by the master, but not connected in any way with the School of Art. The master has entire liberty to teach on his own account, but it is not his interest to neglect the central school, as he receives the whole of the fees paid by students, and also all money grants from the Department for success in art.

The principal school which the master has under his care in drawing is the grammar school at Rishworth; there are, I believe, 30 boys instructed in drawing. This school is a charity school, under the trust of Wheelwrights Charity, and was founded and endowed for the purpose of maintaining certain poor children, and giving them a good classical and general education; there are exhibitions connected with this school at Oxford and Cambridge. The drawing taught is of an elementary character.

There are also three private schools within the parish where the master gives lessons; the total number under instruction is 42.

My own impression and experience of the effect of the recent legislation of the Department upon the subject you have in hand is that owing to the very small grants now made by the Department to local schools (the grant to this school for the present year was about 30*l.*) the masters will be compelled to cultivate to the utmost extent the teaching in private schools, as it is impossible, under present circumstances, to rely upon the School of Art for a livelihood, and so the result will be that middle-class schools and private pupils will get the benefit of the talents and energies of the masters educated and sent out by the Department specially to teach the principles of art and design as connected with manufacturers, and that they will thus frustrate in every way the views which were originally entertained by those who established the Department of Art.

Hoping the above slight particulars will be of service to you,

I remain, &c.,

CHAS. J. FOX,
Hon. Sec.

J. G. Fitch, Esq.,
Heworth House, York.

(e) On Certain Questions affecting the Parents of Boys in Secondary and Upper Schools.

There are several questions suggested by the experience of a parent, to which I should like to draw the attention of the Commission.

1. As to holidays; are they longer and more frequent than they used to be 30 years ago, or than they should be?

2. If they are longer and more frequent, is it for the benefit of the masters or of the pupils? and if of the masters, should not the number of masters be increased so as to diminish their work?

3. Are the average attainments of pupils, on leaving school, as high and as sound as they were 30 years ago, at the same age? and if not, has the increase of holiday time anything to do with it?

4. Is it better (for the pupils) to have longer holidays at one time, as in summer and winter, or to have Easter and Michaelmas holidays also, with numerous single days on other occasions?

5. Should there not be compulsory work to be done, during all vacations of five weeks and upwards?

6. Should vacations be prolonged and holidays be given on requests, and under circumstances quite independent of previous behaviour and diligence?

7. Should the fees to the school and to the masters remain the same, when by occasional extensions of vacation the duties and expenses are decreased?

8. Should not distinctions be made as to occasional holidays, between older and younger students? or do the brains of all require the same relief? the tender ones of the younger, and the sometimes overworked ones of the zealous and ambitious older?

9. As to books, is it not desirable and practicable to diminish the great (and apparently capricious) variety of books in use, on the same subjects, in different schools, so as to reduce the expense (and labour) when change of residence occasions a change of school, for the same pupil or for members of the family? This would lessen the cost of individual books, by making the demand for them greater.

10. Could not shorter books be devised or selected, as it is very common for books to be laid aside, on rapid promotion to higher forms, before the edges of many of their leaves have been soiled?

11. Ought books to be charged to parents, as they always are, at the full published prices (and frequently at more, as I have known) when they can always be bought at a discount by the parents themselves, and when still larger allowances are made to schoolmasters in particular?

12. Is it desirable for the teachers of French and German to have their own publications so commonly used as they are, in the schools to which they are attached.

13. As to arithmetic, should not the reasons of the rules be far more commonly explained than they are, both in books and by instructors?

14. As to discipline, corporal punishment being now, for good reasons, but little resorted to; is sufficient compulsion of other kinds now used (in combination with more agreeable stimuli) to secure due application on the part of the slothful to all their studies, and on the part of the diligent to those studies which they dislike or undervalue, or for success in which they are less likely to obtain a material prize?

H. N. Champney.

APPENDIX V.—Specimens of 20 Tabulated Returns fro

——	I.	II.
1. Number of pupils	18 boarders, 23 day scholars	8 boarders, 15 day scholars
2. Occupation of parents	Tradesmen and manufacturers	Tradesmen and merchants
3. School fees	23*l.*, 26*l.*, and 31*l.* 10*s.* for boarders, exclusive of extras.	52*l.* 10*s.*, 57*l.* for boarders, 15*l* 20*l.* day scholars, exclusive extras.
4. Staff of assistants	Two at 40*l.* and 20*l.* respectively; visiting masters for subjects as required.	Two at 60*l.* and 40*l.* respectively visiting masters for subjec as required.
5. Meals	Three per day. Breakfast, coffee, bread and butter; dinner, roast and boiled beef, mutton, vegetables, and pudding; tea, bread and butter; on Sundays, pastry and supper.	Four per day. Breakfast, coffe porridge, meat, eggs; dinne meat, soup, vegetables, pu ding; tea, tea, bread an butter; supper, bread an butter, milk or water.
6. Bedrooms and discipline	17 in one room; 206 cubic yards for 20 boarders; separate bed, if preferred; retire to rest at 8.30; rise at 6 in summer and 7 in winter; discipline maintained by senior teacher assisted by monitors.	1 to 5 in a room; each a separa bed; retire to rest at half-pas 9, 10; rise at 6 in summer an 7 in winter; discipline mai tained by masters assisted monitors.
Instruction.		
7. Weeks in the school year	42	40
8. Knowledge required of scholars on admission	——	——
9. Whether scholars usually come from some other school, or from home teaching, and in which case are they better prepared.	From both; generally the former	Divided
10. Average time that the pupils remain in the school.	Three years	——
11. Is the school classified— (*a*) By one leading subject or group of subjects solely, (*b*) By one leading subject, &c. chiefly, and other subjects subordinately, or (*c*) Separately for every subject or group of subjects?	(*c*)	Not so classified
12. Are the scholars promoted from class to class— (*a*) By seniority, (*b*) By marks gained for work done in the half year, (*c*) By examination at the end of the half year, or (*d*) In what other way?	By (*b*) and (*c*)	According to progress
13. How many hours a week are the scholars in school?	Boarders, 47½; day scholars, 32½	26 to 30
14. What proportion of the lessons are learnt— (*a*) In school, (*b*) Out of school, under supervision by a teacher, or (*c*) Out of school, not under supervision?	About one-half (*a*), the rest (*c*)	Two hours daily preparati open to all pupils, un supervision of a master.
15. In learning Latin, Greek, French, and German lessons, are the scholars allowed— (*a*) To use translations, (*b*) To have assistance from a teacher, or (*c*) To have no aid but grammar and dictionary?	(*b*), yes; also to have aid from grammar and dictionary.	(*b*) and (*c*)

ate Schools in the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Boys.

III.	IV.	V.	VI.
arders, 30 day scholars	54 boarders	189 boarders	22 boarders, 36 day scholars.
esmen and manufac-ers.	Tradesmen and manufacturers.	Farmers and manufacturers	Commercial men.
o 60*l.* for boarders, 10*l.* 18*l.*, exclusive of extras, day scholars.	28*l.* to 38*l.*, exclusive of extras	42*l.* to 50*l.*, exclusive of extras	26*l.* to 34*l.* boarders, exclusive of extras; day boys, 2*l.* and 5*l.*
at 70*l.* and 50*l.* respec-ely; six non-resident sters.	Three at 60*l.* average, and non-residents for extra subjects.	20 masters, averaging 115*l.*	One master at 25*l.*, one youth in training.
per day. Breakfast, ad, butter, eggs, coffee, lk; dinner, every kind meat; tea, bread, but-, coffee, tea, milk; sup-, bread and cheese.	Four per day. Breakfast, tea, coffee, or milk, with bread and butter; dinner, beef, mutton, veal, pork, &c., vegetables, and pudding; tea, as at breakfast; supper, bread and cheese, &c.	Three per day, with biscuit at 7 a.m. Breakfast and tea, coffee or milk and bread and butter; dinner, pudding, soup, beef, mutton, fish, poultry, game, &c.	Four per day. Breakfast, milk or coffee and bread and butter; dinner, beef, mutton, veal, pork, &c., with vegetables and pudding; tea, tea or milk; bread and cheese to supper.
room 27 ft. × 18 ft. × in., six in room 24 ft. × ft. × 11 in.; retire at 8½ n.; rise at 6½ a.m.; cipline maintained by nitors under a master.	10 to 12 in 26,400 cubic feet; each separate bed generally; retire at 9 p.m.; rise at 6½; discipline maintained by periodical inspection of master.	1 to 80 in 67,291 cubic feet; extra for separate bed; rise at 5.30 in summer, 6.30 in winter; retire at 8.30 or 8; discipline maintained by a watchman.	3 to 5 in a room, 26 in 339 cubic yards; each generally a separate bed; rise at 6 to 7¼; retire at 8 p.m.; discipline maintained by a master or monitor.
	41	42	42.
ead fluently words of o syllables, write, and rk simple rules.	No particular standard of admission.	To be able to read and spell	To be able to read.
rly always from a ladies' hool; from the former.	Two-thirds from other schools; rest from home teaching; former preferred.	Generally from some other school, and preferred thus.	Almost exclusively from other schools.
or six years	Three or four years	Two years	Four or five years.
n and English are the ading subjects for classi-ation.	(*c*), separately for every subject.	Classified according to (*c*)	According to (*c*).
examination at the end each half year.	By (*b*) and (*c*) partly, but not by (*a*).	By (*c*)	(*d*), by the extent of their knowledge and ability to keep pace with pupils in a higher class.
r 36	38	48	Day boys, 36; boarders, 48.
school rather more than o-thirds; the rest under master.	(*a*), about three-quarters; (*b*), in exceptional cases; (*c*), variable, because voluntary.	Seven-ninths in school; two-ninths out of school under master's superintendence.	Day boys, none; boarders, all in school during supervision.
certainly not; (*b*), slight;), yes.	(*a*), no; (*b*) and (*c*), yes, at teacher's discretion.	(*b*) and (*c*)	(*a*), no; (*b*), slight.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Pri

——	VII.	VIII.
1. Number of pupils	Six boarders	30 boarders, 10 day scholars.
2. Occupation of parents	Tradesmen and manufacturers	Commercial men.
3. School fees	30*l.* to 35*l.* boarders, six to eight guineas day boys, exclusive of extras.	Boarders, 30*l.* to 34*l.*, exclu of extras.
4. Staff of assistants	Salaries of assistants, 20*l.* to 50*l.*, according to ability.	Two at 40*l.* and 30*l.* respecti
5. Meals	Four per day. Breakfast, milk, coffee, bread, butter; dinner, meat, potatoes, &c., bread, and pudding; tea, tea, bread, butter; supper, milk and bread.	Four. Breakfast, coffee, b and butter: dinner, joints, or puddings; tea, bread, bu and biscuits; supper, b and butter or cheese water.
6. Bedrooms and discipline	Only six boarders for 356 cubic yards; one teacher sleeps in the room; rise 7-8; retire 9 p.m.	Two in a room 960 cubic each a separate bed; retir 8.30; rise at 6.30; disci maintained by a master.
INSTRUCTION.		
7. Weeks in the school year	42 or 43	40
8. Knowledge required of scholars on admission	How to read	To be able to read and writ
9. Whether scholars usually come from some other school, or from home teaching, and in which case are they better prepared.	From other schools, and preferred thus.	Usually from ladies' prepar schools.
10. Average time that the pupils remain in the school.	——	Five to six years
11. Is the school classified— (*a*) By one leading subject or group of subjects solely. (*b*) By one leading subject, &c. chiefly, and other subjects subordinately, or (*c*) Separately for every subject or group of subjects?	According to (*c*)	Classified according to subject.
12. Are the scholars promoted from class to class— (*a*) By seniority, (*b*) By marks gained for work done in the half year, (*c*) By examination at the end of the half year, or (*d*) In what other way?	By their proficiency	(*d*), as they seem fitted fo motion by my own judgm
13. How many hours a week are the scholars in school?	Boarders, 32; day pupils, 27½	About 35
14. What proportion of the lessons are learnt— (*a*) In school, (*b*) Out of school, under supervision by a teacher, or (*c*) Out of school, not under supervision?	All in school, except home work of day boys.	All in school
15. In learning Latin, Greek, French, and German lessons, are the scholars allowed— (*a*) To use translations, (*b*) To have assistance from a teacher, or (*c*) To have no aid but grammar and dictionary?	(*a*), no; (*b*), yes, if necessary; (*c*), yes.	(*b*), in cases of diffi (*c*), always.

ools in the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Boys—*continued.*

IX.	X.	XI.	XII.
oarders - - -	34 boarders, 101 day scholars	74 boarders - - -	Three boarders, 18 day scholars.
izans, manufacturers, and erchants.	Tradesmen, farmers, clerks, &c.	Merchants, &c. - -	Farmers and tradesmen.
rders, 26*l.* to 30*l.*, includ- ig all extras; day boys, x guineas.	Boarders, 25*l.* to 30*l.*, exclusive of extras; day boys, three and four guineas.	23*l.*, 25*l.*, and 27*l.* for boarders, exclusive of extras.	18 and 20 guineas for boarders; day boys, four guineas.
d master, 50*l.*; second aster, 40*l.*	Four masters at 40*l.*, 42*l.*, 25*l.*, and 25*l.* respectively, and two articled pupils.	Three masters, two pupil teachers, three visiting masters.	None, the master's wife assists.
r. Breakfast, coffee, milk, read and butter, por- dge; dinner, beef or utton, potatoes, &c.; tea, a, bread and butter; upper, bread and butter.	Four. Breakfast, milk or coffee, bread and butter; dinner, beef, mutton, pork, pudding, and vegetables; tea, tea, bread and butter; supper, treacle or cheese and bread.	Three per day. Breakfast, milk and bread or coffee and bread and butter; dinner, beef or mutton, vegetables, pudding, &c.; supper, as at breakfast; tea, three evenings per week.	Four per day. Breakfast, bread, butter, and coffee; dinner, beef, potatoes, pudding; tea, tea, bread, butter; supper, bread, milk, &c.
1 in a room 5,293 cubic et; each a separate bed; tire at 8½ p.m.; rise at ½ a.m.; discipline main- ained by master.	7 in largest, 4 in smallest; 8,758 cubic feet for 30; four have single, the rest double beds; rise at 6 a.m.; retire at 7.45 and 8.45; master goes occasionally in his slippers, in dark, and thus maintains discipline.	22 in one room; 1,230 cubic yards for 77 boys; two boys occupy one bed. Rise at 6.30, retire at 8.15 or 9.30. Discipline maintained by monitors, guided by published rules.	Three in 6,189 cubic feet; not separate beds. Rise at 6.30, retire at 9. Master sleeps in an adjoining room.
- - - - -	42 - - - - -	42 - - - - -	41.
thing required - -	Lower school, to read monosyllables; upper, read freely and do compound rules.	Reading - - -	Nothing.
om both; former pre- erred.	Chiefly from other schools -	Usually from some other school.	From other schools.
or two years - - -	About three years - -	2½ years - - - -	Day pupils seven years, boarders two years.
cording to subjects and eneral attainments.	(*a*), by grammar, arithmetic, and Latin or French.	(*b*) - - - -	(*a*), principally reading and arithmetic.
(*b*) and (*c*) - - -	(*a*), by marks gained for lessons and exercises and paper examinations periodically.	(*c*) - - - -	(*d*), I use my own judgment in regard to their skill in reading and arithmetic.
y pupils, 28; boarders, 39	30 - - - -	39 - - - -	27½.
l in school but home work	Day pupils prepare lessons at home; boarders in schoolroom with a teacher.	(*b*), all except (*c*); (*c*), letters.	A few lessons by heart at home.
) and (*c*) - - -	(*a*), no; (*b*), boarders may have a little help.	(*a*), no; (*b*), yes - -	(*a*), no; (*b*), sometimes; (*c*), yes.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Priv

——	XIII.	XIV.
1. Number of pupils	35 boarders, 60 day scholars	Three boarders, sixteen d scholars.
2. Occupation of parents	Merchants and manufacturers	Tradesmen and manufacturer
3. School fees	Boarders 37*l.*, 45*l.*, and 54*l.*, including everything.	Boarders 23 and 25 guineas, d scholars three and four guine
4. Staff of assistants	Three masters; classical at 60*l.*, mathematical at 60*l.*, commercial at 50*l.*	——
5. Meals	Four per day. Breakfast, bread, butter, coffee; dinner, beef or mutton, potatoes, and pudding; tea, bread, and butter in the evening.	Four per day. Breakfast, bre and butter, coffee; dinner, bo mutton, &c., vegetables, p &c.; tea, bread, butter, t supper, bread, cheese, beer,
6. Bedrooms and discipline	Nine in largest, three in smallest. Half the boarders have separate beds. Rise at 6 in summer, and 7½ in winter; retire at 9 p.m. Masters maintain discipline.	6,804 cubic feet for 10; separate beds. Rise at 6 an retire at 9 and 9.30. Monit maintain discipline.
INSTRUCTION.		
7. Weeks in the school year	44	44
8. Knowledge required of scholars on admission	To read and know the simple rules.	To be able to read
9. Whether scholars usually come from some other school, or from home teaching, and in which case are they better prepared.	About equally divided	From other schools, and p ferred so, especially when b taught by females.
10. Average time that the pupils remain in the school.	Four years	Four or five years
11. Is the school classified— (*a*) By one leading subject or group of subjects solely, (*b*) By one leading subject, &c. chiefly, and other subjects subordinately, or (*c*) Separately for every subject or group of subjects?	(*b*), commercial subjects are the basis.	(*a*), yes
12. Are the scholars promoted from class to class— (*a*) By seniority, (*b*) By marks gained for work done in the half year, (*c*) By examination at the end of the half year, or (*d*) In what other way?	(*b*), by marks for half year's work, and also by regular examinations	Yes. (*d*), by greater advan ment or superior intelligen
13. How many hours a week are the scholars in school?	Day scholars, 32; boarders, 38	48 hours
14. What proportion of the lessons are learnt— (*a*) In school, (*b*) Out of school, under supervision by a teacher, or (*c*) Out of school, not under supervision?	All boarders' lessons are learnt under a master's supervision.	(*a*) boarders nearly all in presence; (*c*), day pupils home.
15. In learning Latin, Greek, French, and German lessons, are the scholars allowed— (*a*) To use translations, (*b*) To have assistance from a teacher, or (*c*) To have no aid but grammar and dictionary?	(*b*) and (*c*)	(*a*), no; (*b*) and (*c*), yes

bols in the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Boys—*continued.*

XV.	XVI.	XVII.	XVIII.
en boarders, 30 day boys -	12 boarders, 37 day scholars -	24 boarders, 206 day scholars	52 boarders, six day scholars.
desmen, &c. - -	Tradesmen and manufacturers.	Tradesmen generally -	Manufacturers, &c.
rders 20*l.*, 26*l.*, 32*l.* Day holars 4 to 12 guineas.	Boarders 25. 26, and 60 guineas, day scholars, 10, 12, and 14 guineas, exclusive of extras.	Boarders 24*l.* and 28*l.*, day scholars four guineas, exclusive of extras.	Boarders 34 to 40 guineas, day scholars six to eight guineas, exclusive of extras.
at 25*l.* Visiting masters required.	Two, at 40*l.*, and 20*l.*, respectively. Visiting masters for drill, German, &c., and drawing.	One at 75*l.* per annum, two at 40*l.*, two at 30*l.*, and two at 20*l.*, with board, &c.; one at 25*l.*, and one for his instruction.	Four resident and one semi-resident receive 350*l.* Three visiting tutors, 148*l.*
r per day. Breakfast. offee, bread, &c.; dinner, eef, pork, &c., vegetables, udding; tea, tea, &c.; upper, bread, butter, heese.	Four per day. Breakfast, tea and coffee, bread and butter; dinner, beef, mutton, &c., puddings and pies; tea, tea, bread and butter; supper, bread, butter, cheese, preserves.	Four per day. Breakfast, coffee with bread and butter; dinner, beef or veal with puddings; tea, tea, bread and butter; supper, bread and milk.	Four a day. Breakfast, coffee, cocoa, &c., bread, cake, &c.; dinner, beef, mutton, veal, &c., vegetables, puddings, and pies; tea; supper, bread and milk.
ee. 6,900 cubic feet for ine. Not separate beds. ise at 6, retire at 8. Monirs maintain discipline.	Seven in largest room, and one in smallest, 9,412 cubic feet. Separate bed for each. Rise, summer, 6; winter, 6½; retire, summer, 8¾; winter, 8½. Masters maintain discipline.	Six in largest, two in smallest. 12,000 cubic feet for 26. Not separate beds. Rise at 7, retire at 9.30. Masters maintain discipline.	Eight in largest, and three in least. Each may have a separate bed. Rise at 6, retire at 8½. Masters sleep, &c., in rooms adjoining.
- - - -	40 - - - -	44 - - - -	44.
——	Reading, and the multiplication table.	Received as they come -	Read and spell easy lessons.
om both; latter preferred	Most from other schools, generally preparatory; preferred from the better sort of preparatory schools.	From both - - -	Chiefly former; same preferred.
ree years - - -	One year and a half - -	Three or four years - -	Two years.
ssified in each subject -	Alternate fortnights the two upper divisions are classified according to their attainments— (1) In classics. (2) In mathematics.	By two subjects, arithmetic being one, and general knowledge the other.	(*b*) and (*c*) plans are adopted.
examination - -	Promoted by head master's knowledge of their proficiency.	By (*b*) and (*c*) - -	(*c*).
y scholars, 24; boarders, 2	Day scholars, 26; boarders, 38 to 41.	About 33 - - -	42.
, grammar, geography. pellings by boarders; (*c*), he same by day pupils.	All in school except arithmetic and writing.	(*a*), one fourth; (*b*), three quarters by boarders; (*c*), three quarters by day scholars.	All lessons are learnt in school hours.
, yes, in some cases; (*b*), es; (*c*), yes.	(*b*) and (*c*) - - -	(*a*), no (*b*), yes; (*c*), yes -	(*a*), no; (*b*), yes.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Schools in the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Boys—*continued.*

	XIX.	XX.
1. Number of pupils	20 day scholars	88 day scholars.
2. Occupation of parents	Tradesmen, &c.	Manufacturers, &c.
3. School fees	Day scholars 6*l.* and 7*l.*, and charges for fires, &c.	24*s.* to 28*s.*; extras for shorthand and French.
4. Staff of assistants	None	One assistant, 5*l.* per year, for private tuition.
5. Meals	—	—
6. Bedrooms and discipline	—	—
INSTRUCTION.		
7. Weeks in the school year	44	48.
8. Knowledge required of scholars on admission	Read monosyllables	Nothing.
9. Whether scholars usually come from some other school, or from home teaching, and in which case are they better prepared.	Other schools	Generally from ladies' schools preferred from home.
10. Average time that the pupils remain in the school.	2½ years	Five or six years.
11. Is the school classified— (*a*) By one leading subject or group of subjects solely, (*b*) By one leading subject, &c. chiefly, and other subjects subordinately, or (*c*) Separately for every subject or group of subjects?	(*c*)	By proficiency in reading, arithmetic and writing grammar.
12. Are the scholars promoted from class to class— (*a*) By seniority, (*b*) By marks gained for work done in the half year, (*c*) By examination at the end of the half year, or (*d*) In what other way?	By weekly advancement and half-yearly examinations	By observation and a weekly examination.
13. How many hours a week are the scholars in school?	48 hours	28.
14. What proportion of the lessons are learnt— (*a*) In school, (*b*) Out of school, under supervision by a teacher, or (*c*) Out of school, not under supervision?	(*a*), chiefly; (*c*), all home tasks	(*a*), three-quarters; (*c*), a quarter.
15. In learning Latin, Greek, French, and German lessons, are the scholars allowed— (*a*) To use translations, (*b*) To have assistance from a teacher, or (*c*) To have no aid but grammar and dictionary?	Not taught	(*b*).

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Schools in the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Boys—*continued.*

	I.	II.
. Are Latin, French, and German exercises one— (*a*) In prose, or (*b*) In verse?	In prose - - - - -	(*a*).
. Are such exercises, if any,— (*a*) Short sentences taken from exercise books, (*b*) Continuous pieces for translation, or (*c*) Original composition?	(*a*) and (*b*), yes - - -	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*).
. Are examples in arithmetic or mathematics— (*a*) Taken from text books, (*b*) Dictated orally by the teacher, or (*c*) Set in writing?	Both (*a*) and (*b*) - - -	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*).
. Are the scholars taught history— (*a*) From abridgments, (*b*) From standard authors, or (*c*) From oral lectures?	From (*a*) and (*b*) - - -	(*b*) and (*c*).
. Are the scholars taught natural history, ysics, or chemistry— (*a*) By text books, (*b*) By oral lectures, (*c*) With specimen objects and experiments shown by the teacher or lecturer, or (*d*) With specimen objects handled, and experiments worked by the scholars themselves?	Both (*a*) and (*b*); also by diagrams and experiments.	(*a*) and (*b*).
. Are the following subjects taught, and in hat way?— (*a*) Geometrical drawing. (*b*) Perspective. (*c*) Freehand drawing from the flat. (*d*) Freehand drawing from models. (*e*) Colouring.	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), and (*e*), yes; individually under the direction of the drawing master.	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), (*e*).
. Are the following subjects taught, and in hat way?— (*a*) Harmony. (*b*) Instrumental music. (*c*) Class singing. (*d*) Solo singing.	(*b*), yes; individually under the direction of the music master.	(*b*), (*c*).
. How often is the school examined, by what aminers, and in what subjects?	Half-yearly; by the principal, in all the subjects mentioned in Form E.	Every six months; by their teachers; in all.
. What system of rewards and prizes is in e in the school?	Prizes awarded half-yearly according to merit in the principal subjects, and for deportment.	Book prizes every six months.
. Is it part of the system to modify the course the school in the case of boys— (*a*) Who show a particular aptitude for certain studies, (*b*) Who are intended by their parents for certain lines of life, or (*c*) Who after trial appear specially disqualified for any part of the school work? If so, how is it done?	Yes, for (*b*), when the hours for regular subjects are curtailed to give more time for the subjects desired.	—
. Is the ordinary school instruction sufficient, ithout supplementary aid, to prepare a boy of od ability for success in the competitive aminations for scholarships at the universities, d for the civil, military, and East India rvices?	—	Yes.
Is the school connected with any, and if so, ith what religious denomination?	The school is opened to and attended by all denominations.	With none.
. What provision is made for religious inruction and for prayers?	Scripture reading, &c.; extemporary prayers are used, at which all the boarders are present.	Sunday and first hour of Monday devoted to religious instruction; Thornton's "Family Prayers;" not all necessarily present.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Priv

——	III.	IV.
16. Are Latin, French, and German exercises done— (*a*) In prose, or (*b*) In verse?	(*a*), yes; (*b*), no, except in a few cases.	Latin in both; other langu in prose only.
17. Are such exercises, if any,— (*a*) Short sentences taken from exercise books, (*b*) Continuous pieces for translation, or (*c*) Original composition?	(*a*), at first; (*b*), afterwards; (*c*), occasionally.	Partly of all three
18. Are examples in arithmetic or mathematics— (*a*) Taken from text books, (*b*) Dictated orally by the teacher, or (*c*) Set in writing?	(*a*), generally; (*b*), once a week; (*c*), once a quarter.	In all three ways
19. Are the scholars taught history— (*a*) From abridgments, (*b*) From standard authors, or (*c*) From oral lectures?	(*a*), yes	(*a*) and (*b*), chiefly; (*c*) casionally.
20. Are the scholars taught natural history, physics, or chemistry— (*a*) By text books, (*b*) By oral lectures, (*c*) With specimen objects and experiments shown by the teacher or lecturer, or (*d*) With specimen objects handled, and experiments worked by the scholars themselves?	(*b*), one afternoon a fortnight; (*c*), yes; (*d*), yes.	By all four modes
21. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way?— (*a*) Geometrical drawing. (*b*) Perspective. (*c*) Freehand drawing from the flat. (*d*) Freehand drawing from models. (*e*) Colouring.	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), yes; (*e*), sometimes. The only two juniors distinguished in drawing at Cambridge middle class examination, December 1862, were from this, school.	All five are taught
22. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way?— (*a*) Harmony. (*b*) Instrumental music. (*c*) Class singing. (*d*) Solo singing.	Eight learn music, four the piano; all boarders learn singing twice a week, and all solo singing.	All are taught
23. How often is the school examined, by what examiners, and in what subjects?	Twice every half year; by local clergy and friends; in divinity, mathematics, and classics.	Twice a year; by princip masters; in nearly all sub
24. What system of rewards and prizes is in use in the school?	3*l.* worth of books given for proficiency or improvement every half year.	Certificates at Christmas; at Midsummer.
25. Is it part of the system to modify the course of the school in the case of boys— (*a*) Who show a particular aptitude for certain studies, (*b*) Who are intended by their parents for certain lines of life, or (*c*) Who after trial appear specially disqualified for any part of the school work? If so, how is it done?	(*c*), sometimes boys on account of ill health or deficiency are excused Latin.	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*); this is occasi done by exempting such from attendance on part classes.
26. Is the ordinary school instruction sufficient, without supplementary aid, to prepare a boy of good ability for success in the competitive examinations for scholarships at the universities, and for the civil, military, and East India services? Is the school connected with any, and if so, with what religious denomination?	Yes, if he continues till the proper age.	Yes With none
27. What provision is made for religious instruction and for prayers?	With Church of England Scripture once a week; boarders again on Sunday; prayers before and after school; boarders present.	Scripture and catechism the incumbent gives dress every fortnight; twice a day; "Altar Household," &c.

ools in the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Boys—*continued.*

V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.
, both	In prose	Latin and French in prose; Latin only in verse.	Latin and French in prose.
three	(*a*) and (*b*)	(*a*), generally; (*b*), sometimes; (*c*), no.	From Arnold's, Dr. Smith's, and De Fivas' books.
	(*a*), chiefly; (*b*), also	(*a*), generally; (*b*), often; (*c*), no.	(*a*), generally; (*b*), frequently
nerally (*a*) and (*c*); only dvanced students (*b*).	(*a*)	(*a*), generally (*b*), yes; (*c*), no.	Read history and learn abridgments.
all four modes	(*a*)	Only taught incidentally	The elements from text books; also (*b*) and (*c*).
l of these	(*a*) and (*c*), by a resident master.	(*a*), (*c*), (*d*), (*e*) are taught by a drawing master.	Principally landscape drawing in pencil and in colours; also drawing from objects.
l of them; harmony by ectures; instrumental music, class singing, and solo singing by the personal instruction of music master.	(*b*), by a professional gentleman who attends once a week.	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), by general musical instruction.	Private lessons on pianoforte, &c.
eekly and half-yearly; by independent examiners; in all subjects.	Half-yearly; by the principal; in half-year's work.	Weekly; by the master; in different subjects.	Every half year; by master and College of Preceptors; in all school work.
0*l.* given in prizes half-yearly for industry and proficiency.	Certificates, money, and books for proficiency.	Rewards for good behaviour and industry.	Rewards according to number of marks in examination and good conduct.
es, but care is taken that his general education is not retarded, or some faculties dwarfed.	(*a*), occasionally; (*b*), frequently; (*c*), seldom.	(*a*), (*b*), if parents request it, and the request be reasonable.	All work is modified to suit the prospects of pupils.
is	Questionable	I am afraid not.	—
hurch of England	Not under the control of any religious body; principal is a Wesleyan local preacher.	Not connected with any religious body.	We attend church, but are not bound to it.
resident college chaplain; Scripture and selections from Prayer Book read morning and evening.	Scripture and catechism taught; extemporaneous prayers morning and evening.	Every morning a chapter from the Bible read and explained; no prayers.	Daily lessons; prayers night and morning, when all the family are present.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Pri

	IX.	X.
16. Are Latin, French, and German exercises done— (*a*) In prose, or (*b*) In verse?	Prose (principally)	(*a*), in prose
17. Are such exercises, if any,— (*a*) Short sentences taken from exercise books, (*b*) Continuous pieces for translation, or (*c*) Original composition?	(*a*) and (*b*)	(*a*) and (*b*), both
18. Are examples in arithmetic or mathematics— (*a*) Taken from text books, (*b*) Dictated orally by the teacher, or (*c*) Set in writing?	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)
19. Are the scholars taught history— (*a*) From abridgments, (*b*) From standard authors, or (*c*) From oral lectures?	From (*b*) and (*c*)	(*a*), in lower classes; (*b*), upper classes all; (*c*).
20. Are the scholars taught natural history, physics, or chemistry— (*a*) By text books, (*b*) By oral lectures, (*c*) With specimen objects and experiments shown by the teacher or lecturer, or (*d*) With specimen objects handled, and experiments worked by the scholars themselves?	Not taught any	Physics and chemistry, (*a*), and (*c*).
21. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way?— (*a*) Geometrical drawing. (*b*) Perspective. (*c*) Freehand drawing from the flat. (*d*) Freehand drawing from models. (*e*) Colouring.	(*c*), by teachers, from copies and blackboard.	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), shown method, and afterwards spected by the master.
22. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way?— (*a*) Harmony. (*b*) Instrumental music. (*c*) Class singing. (*d*) Solo singing.	(*b*), yes; (*c*) and (*d*), by lessons in evening.	(*b*), pianoforte; (*c*), first so then with words.
23. How often is the school examined, by what examiners, and in what subjects?	Never has been publicly examined	First 20 pupils annually; Coll of Preceptors; in all subjec
24. What system of rewards and prizes is in use in the school?	Prizes and certificates for proficiency and good conduct.	Prizes for order, memory, mi and special subjects.
25. Is it part of the system to modify the course of the school in the case of boys— (*a*) Who show a particular aptitude for certain studies. (*b*) Who are intended by their parents for certain lines of life, or (*c*) Who after trial appear specially disqualified for any part of the school work? If so, how is it done?	Yes, for (*a*) and (*b*); mostly by individual teaching, and partly by class.	(*a*) and (*b*) to a certain exte by taking off the time fr one subject and adding it the special one.
26. Is the ordinary school instruction sufficient, without supplementary aid, to prepare a boy of good ability for success in the competitive examinations for scholarships at the universities, and for the civil, military, and East India services?	Yes, we think so	No
Is the school connected with any, and if so, with what religious denomination?	Church of England	None
27. What provision is made for religious instruction and for prayers?	Lessons in Scripture; family prayers night and morning; chiefly from the Liturgy.	A daily Bible lesson, and h lesson Mondays; a short co read in morning and Lo Prayer at evening.

hools in the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Boys—*continued.*

XI.	XII.	XIII.	XIV.
)	(*a*), always	In prose, but a little Latin in verse.	Latin exercises in prose.
)	(*a*) and (*b*)	(*a*), such as Arnold's composition.	(*a*), yes.
), (*b*)	(*a*), principally; (*b*) and (*c*) sometimes.	(*a*), generally; (*c*), at stated periods.	(*a*), yes; (*b*), yes; (*c*), to advanced pupils.
), (*b*)	(*a*)	(*a*), the juniors; (*b*), the seniors.	(*a*) and (*b*).
)	Orally	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*a*).
), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*) (*e*)	(*c*)	Have occasionally a lecture, but are taught separately.	(*a*) and (*b*).
), piano; (*c*), yes	Only one learns instrumental music.	Separately	(*a*) and (*b*) by professors.
uarterly; by the principal and masters; in all subjects studied.	No examinations	Yearly; by College of Preceptors; in all subjects.	—
rizes and medals for proficiency; medal for good conduct.	No prizes	No prizes; certificates by the Oxford and Cambridge authorities.	Books are presented occasionally for good behaviour and general improvement.
a), not as a rule; (*b*), yes, as far as is practicable.	I endeavour to adapt the instruction to their personal abilities and requirements.	More attention is devoted to particular subjects when parents make this request.	(*a*) and (*b*), yes; by paying particular attention to those studies which I have ascertained to be adapted to any branch of business.
Io	I think so	Yes.	—
—	With none	Not connected with any religious denomination.	Not necessarily, but I and all boarders attend Church of England.
aily readings of Scripture and prayer; Bishop Blomfield's prayers used or extempore.	Religious instruction often given orally; family prayers morning and evening.	Bible history is a subject of study; family prayers from "The Altar of the Household."	Reading Scripture daily, and learning Scripture history; prayers from my own selection; all boarders present.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Sch

——	XV.	XVI.
16. Are Latin, French, and German exercises done— (*a*) In prose, or (*b*) In verse?	(*a*) and (*b*), if required	Latin, French, and Germ prose.
17. Are such exercises, if any,— (*a*) Short sentences taken from exercise books, (*b*) Continuous pieces for translation, or (*c*) Original composition?	——	(*a*) and (*b*)
18. Are examples in arithmetic or mathematics— (*a*) Taken from text books, (*b*) Dictated orally by the teacher, or (*c*) Set in writing?	Yes	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)
19. Are the scholars taught history— (*a*) From abridgments, (*b*) From standard authors, or (*c*) From oral lectures?	——	(*a*) and (*c*)
20. Are the scholars taught natural history, physics, or chemistry— (*a*) By text books, (*b*) By oral lectures, (*c*) With specimen objects and experiments shown by the teacher or lecturer, or (*d*) With specimen objects handled, and experiments worked by the scholars themselves?	Yes	(*b*), (*c*), and (*d*)
21. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way?— (*a*) Geometrical drawing. (*b*) Perspective. (*c*) Freehand drawing from the flat. (*d*) Freehand drawing from models. (*e*) Colouring.	——	Yes, by the Local School of master.
22. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way?— (*a*) Harmony. (*b*) Instrumental music. (*c*) Class singing. (*d*) Solo singing.	——	(*b*). the pianoforte is taught t an associate of the Ro Academy of Music, Londo (*a*), (*c*), and (*d*) not taugh
23. How often is the school examined, by what examiners, and in what subjects?	Half-yearly; master and clergymen; in subjects taught.	Generally once a year; mos by university graduates; all subjects.
24. What system of rewards and prizes is in use in the school?	Books	Books, desks, drawing materi &c. (1) for half-years' marks, (2) for examinations.
25. Is it part of the system to modify the course of the school in the case of boys— (*a*) Who show a particular aptitude for certain studies. (*b*) Who are intended by their parents for certain lines of life, or (c) Who after trial appear specially disqualified for any part of the school work? If so, how is it done?	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*), yes; by allowing them to study chiefly the branch most suited for them.	(*a*) They are taught separat in their own specialities; are allowed to discontinue study for which naturally qualified.
26. Is the ordinary school instruction sufficient, without supplementary aid, to prepare a boy of good ability for success in the competitive examination for scholarships at the universities, and for the civil, military, and East India services? Is the school connected with any, and if so, with what religious denomination?	—— No; pupils are Protestant and Roman Catholics.	I believe so No
27. What provision is made for religious instruction and for prayers?	Religious instruction given; prayers used, Jenks's devotion by Simeon, and Prayer Book.	Bible read daily; family pray and extempore; "The A of the Household" used master's absence.

in the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Boys—*continued.*

XVII.	XVIII.	XIX	XX.
prose	(*a*), yes; (*b*), seldom	——	In prose.
), yes; (*b*), yes; (*c*), no	(*a*), for juniors; (*b*), those more advanced; (*c*), for seniors.	——	(*a*).
), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*a*) and (*b*)	(*a*) and (*b*), sometimes; (*c*), mostly.	All three.
), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*a*), for juniors; (*b*), for more advanced; (*c*), yes.	(*a*) and (*c*), mostly	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*).
ot taught	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), and (*d*)	(*a*), partly; (*b*) and (*c*), chiefly.	(*b*) and (*c*).
a), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), (*e*), taught by the School of Art master.	All taught by the Leeds School of Art master.	(*a*) by means of instruments.	(*a*), from problems worked andexplained on the blackboard; (*c*), from copies; (*e*), from chromo-lithographs.
c), taught the boarders, but not day scholars.	(*b*), (*c*), and (*d*) by professionals.	——	——
Some go every year to the Cambridge Local Examinations.	Half quarterly; by principal and vice-principal; in all subjects.	Every week; by myself; in all subjects.	Once a year, Christmas; by some other schoolmaster; in all the subjects taught.
Prizes twice a year to those who have distinguished themselves.	Books, instruments, &c. for diligence, &c.; each 100 marks have a half-yearly fixed money value.	No rewards	To the two most proficient in each subject; the boy in each class for attendance, conduct, and home lesson marks.
a), (*b*), and (*c*), yes; by encouraging a taste for any particular study, and allowing those subjects to drop for which there is no taste.	(*a*) yes; (*b*) yes	Yes, by classifying them in the best manner possible.	(*a*) developed to the full extent allowed by the time allotted to those subjects. (*b*) specially trained for it. (*c*) omit that part of the school work.
No opportunity of testing it, as boys leave too soon.	Yes	No	I should think so.
With none	No	No	None.
Religious instruction every Monday afternoon; family prayers for boarders, but no school prayers.	School prayers extempore, and Dr. Fletcher's.	None; irregularity of attendance prevents this religious duty.	Two Scripture lessons a week, prayers night and morning, an introductory one, extempore, ending with Lord's Prayer.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Scho

——	I.	II.
28. Are there any lessons on Sundays, and what are the regulations about attendance on divine worship on Sunday?	Scriptural texts as lessons; Scripture reading and exposition; boarders attend divine service twice.	Only Bible lessons; boarde compelled to go twice church with their masters.
29. What punishments are in use, and for what offences are they inflicted?	Chiefly a task as an imposition, and deprivation of privileges allowed to non-offenders, for falsehood or a breach of rule; corporal only in extreme cases, and then publicly; tasks only may be imposed by assistants.	No corporal whatever; ext lessons for violation of rule sending to bed and depriv tion of half-holiday; impo tions after school hours.
30. Are there any monitors empowered to aid in maintaining discipline; and is there any rule that the scholars should never be out of the presence of some teacher or other?	Yes - - - - -	Monitors in rotation to preve careless habits, appointed principal; boarders alwa under the care of master duty.
31. What are the means of enforcing regularity of attendance; and what are the most frequent causes alleged for occasional absence?	Time lost by late attendance or unnecessary absence redeemed by working over hours; detained by parents on some service or other.	Bad marks and impositions
32. Have the scholars access to any school library?	Magazines and books supplied by the principal.	Yes - - - -
33. Playground: its size and distance from the school.	A playground of 1,768 square yards is adjoining; also a large pasture ground at a distance for cricket, &c. on half-day holidays; no covered place for wet weather.	A playground of two acres abo 10 yards from school; certa school-rooms for wet weath
34. Hours of play, and description of games.	21; cricket, football, &c.; a master present; no gymnasium.	20; cricket, football, &c.; a gy nasium; masters join.
35. Is drilling, or are any athletic exercises taught as a part of the school system?	Yes, but apart from school-hours.	Yes - - - -
36. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be best fitted for the education of the majority of your scholars?	English grammar and composition, arithmetic, algebra, book-keeping, and other counting-house requirements; mensuration and surveying, mechanical drawing, history, geography, and in many cases Latin.	Classics, mathematics, and m dern languages.
37. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be preferred by the parents?	Principally those relating to commercial pursuits.	The same - - -
38. What difficulties, if any, do you find in the discharge of your duty?	——	None - - - -
39. Would it, in your opinion, be an advantage or otherwise if your school were examined annually and publicly reported on by independent examiners: and, if such examiners are desirable, how should they be appointed?	Not in our case; being strictly private, only a limited number of boys are taken, and those are obtained by the recommendation of such parties as have or have had children at school.	Yes, certainly, by public exam ners.
40. Is it, in your judgment, possible or expedient to give boys at school a direct preparation for the particular occupations for which they may be intended by their parents?	Yes - - - - -	Yes - -

the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Boys—*continued.*

III.	IV.	V.	VI.
llect is prepared, and Scripture history; boarders attend church morning and evening.	Two hours' Bible reading; attend service twice a day; playing and ordinary studies prohibited.	Lectures on Scripture by chaplain 7–8 a.m.; attend church morning and afternoon.	One hour Scripture; in morning attend the place of the parents' choice; evening all attend chapel.
rporal only by head master; for moral offences, gross impudence, or systematic idleness, privately; masters set impositions and keep in.	Detention in school; tasks and fines; no corporal; masters can keep in, with or without hard work.	Imposition, drill, and stoppage of liberty; corporal punishment not sanctioned; masters give impositions up to 500 lines, but generally report.	Forfeiture of marks, imposition, and in extreme cases corporal punishment, privately, by head master; masters can only take away good marks without reporting.
onitors only report; appointed by head master; yes, except occasionally.	No monitors - - -	Yes; not considered necessary to be always under supervision.	Yes; appointed according to age; generally under supervision.
egistering late boys; keeping in after three times; prize for punctuality.	Rewards for punctuality; fines for lateness; ill health and visiting.	Offenders have all liberty stopped from a week to a month.	Marks for punctuality; a note from parents when late, but seldom any reason assigned.
n Sunday - - - -	To two, one for Sunday and one for week days.	Yes, by payment of 1*s.* 3*d.* per quarter.	Yes, by paying 6*d.* per quarter.
playground of 1½ acres, with two minutes' walk; no covered playground for wet weather.	A playground of 3½ acres quite near; rooms for play in wet weather; a covered playground being made.	Several playgrounds cover about seven acres within a few yards; a covered playground, 30 by 10 yards, warmed in winter, for wet weather.	A playground, 30 yards by 15 yards, adjoining the school; part of the above is covered for wet weather.
2; cricket, football, &c.; athletic sports once a year.	25; cricket, football, &c.; a master generally present; apparatus for gymnastic exercises.	30; cricket, &c.; a gymnasium, 21 yards by 18 yards; no rule about master's presence.	36; cricket, football, &c.; a limited gymnasium; a master always present.
drill master attends twice a week.	A retired officer teaches drill, &c.	Drilling 6–7 a.m.; cricket by a professional, and gymnasium by a master.	Drilling twice a week by a sergeant.
Classics, mathematics, and modern languages.	English language; grammar generally; history, biography, geography, Latin and Greek, French and German, natural philosophy, arithmetic, geometry, algebra.	For commercial pursuits, engineering, mechanical drawing, mechanics, chemistry, and modern languages; English grammar and a sound English education.	Reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, history, and land surveying.
They are generally satisfied with the routine.	Those which happen to accord with their own ideas of practical utility.	Arithmetic, short and mental calculations, drawing, book-keeping, correspondence, &c.	The above.
Parents are afraid of my giving them too good an education.	Advanced age and an unprepared state at entrance; early removal to business.	The anxieties of parents to send their boys to business too early.	Want of co-operation on the part of parents, especially in not looking after children's home work.
No; the Oxford and middle-class examiners are quite sufficient. If the examiners from Cambridge could undertake to examine at a more moderate charge, I think most schools would employ them.	Yes, if conducted so as to furnish an additional stimulus to pupils; the examiners should be of practical experience and accredited scholars.	Most decidedly an advantage, and by examiners appointed by Government.	Unable to decide; am of opinion there is too much sham and too much puff in the use of reports.
Not until after 15 or 16 years of age.	To a considerable extent -	I think it is, and would in my opinion be most desirable.	Yes, I think so.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Schoo

—	VII.	VIII.
28. Are there any lessons on Sundays, and what are the regulations about attendance on divine worship on Sunday?	No; attend church twice; a master always with them.	An hour and a half in afternoo attend church twice.
29. What punishments are in use, and for what offence are they inflicted?	Confinement, additional lessons, and corporal punishment; the last only by the head master; for breaking rules, using bad language, &c.	Work not done, confinemen minor offences, impositio disobedience and insubor nation, public flogging head master; masters on may give impositions.
30. Are there any monitors empowered to aid in maintaining discipline; and is there any rule that the scholars should never be out of the presence of some teacher or other?	One every morning appointed by master; no rule.	No monitors; a teacher alwa with them.
31. What are the means of enforcing regularity of attendance; and what are the most frequent causes alleged for occasional absence?	Confinement; mothers have given leave to stay at home.	All attend very well
32. Have the scholars access to any school library?	They have the periodicals and class books.	Yes, quite free
33. Playground; its size and distance from the school.	A small playground of about 600 square yards joins the school; a small porch for wet weather.	A playground of two acres a joining; the large school-roo used in wet weather.
34. Hours of play, and description of games	40; a gymnasium near the school; sometimes masters join.	28; cricket, &c.; a gymnasium a master always present, an frequently joins them.
35. Is drilling, or are any athletic exercises taught as a part of the school system?	—	Yes, by a drill sergeant
36. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be best fitted for the education of the majority of your scholars?	Writing, arithmetic thoroughly, geography, the English and Latin languages, French and German, and elements of mathematics.	Moderate knowledge of classi French, English work th roughly, composition, co mercial work, book-keepi invoices, letters (English a French), arithmetic, &c.
37. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be preferred by the parents?	The above, and occasionally chemistry.	They prefer useful subjects
38. What difficulties, if any, do you find in the discharge of your duty?	The folly and indulgence of parents.	None in particular; parents a sometimes a trial, and bac ward boys of 16.
39. Would it, in your opinion, be an advantage or otherwise if your school were examined annually and publicly reported on by independent examiners; and, if such examiners are desirable, how should they be appointed?	I don't know that it would; magistrates of districts or a committee of the House of Commons should appoint examiners.	I think it might do good, esp cially to parents and boy no objection to Governme inspectors.
40. Is it, in your judgment, possible or expedient to give boys at school a direct preparation for the particular occupations for which they may be intended by their parents?	Possible, but inexpedient	That is my opinion; alwa acted on it, and with gre advantage to the pupils.

the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Boys—*continued.*

IX.	X.	XI.	XII.
few verses to learn; attend a place of worship twice.	Scripture lessons and exercises; attend church or chapel twice.	Scripture learning by rote and reading; attendance at church.	A few Scripture; attend church twice.
d marks for untidiness, bad conduct, &c.; corporal punishment in extreme cases by head master only; masters required to report.	Isolation, imposition, shame; put into Coventry for using bad language; corporal punishment by master only; isolation and imposition by teachers.	Standing with eyes closed, written tasks, dumb-bells, cane, or an occasional box on the ear; corporal punishments by master only, privately; masters all the other sorts.	Keeping in for late attendance, carelessness, and rude conduct; corporal punishment seldom and public.
ily in bedrooms; no rule -	No; yes - - -	Yes; elected by their fellows as members of the roll of honour; no.	No monitors; seldom left alone.
arks are deducted; work required to be done for fathers.	The parent is communicated with; sickness and detention for business.	—	They are asked the reason; errands, home excuse, and sickness.
o - - - - -	The boarders only; to return the book.	Yes, by quarterly subscription.	No.
playground of three roods adjoining, and cricket field of three acres about half a mile from school; a covered place for wet weather.	A playground, 90 ft. by 40 ft. adjoining; two cloisters for wet weather.	A playground of 2,173 square yards is adjoining; a shed open to the south (31 feet × 12 feet) for wet weather.	A playground of 3,359 square feet close to the school, covered place 350 square feet for wet weather.
; cricket, gymnastics, &c.; masters always join.	15, and Wednesday and Saturday afternoons for walking; cricket and gymnastics.	49 for play, food, and dressing, cricket, trap, marbles, &c.; masters join; a gymnasium.	23; marbles, tops, &c.; master rarely joins; no gymnasium.
es - - - - -	Drilling, club exercises, and fencing.	Drilling is taught - -	No drilling, &c.
oly Scripture, reading correctly and fluently, writing and dictation, a good bold style, arithmetic, mensuration, and book-keeping, grammar, &c.	Grammar, analysis, geography, Scripture, English history, good reading, writing, arithmetic, drawing, book-keeping, and Latin or French.	Mathematics, commercial arithmetic, a knowledge of Latin, an intimate acquaintance with our own language, and writing.	Reading, writing, arithmetic, grammar, geography, book-keeping, natural science, composition, &c., French, the classics, &c.
he above - - - -	Good reading, writing, composition, and ready calculation.	The above for commercial men.	Reading, writing, arithmetic, and book-keeping.
Backward boys sent to learn one or two subjects.	In obtaining good teachers and in dealing with backward boys.	Parents allowing their children to give up distasteful studies.	The indolence of pupils and readiness of parents to excuse their attendance and lessons.
t would, I think; the examiners to consist of practical gentlemen who are schoolmasters.	I think it would; by a country board, half schoolmasters, or by a scholastic corporation, the examiners to be retired schoolmasters.	An advantage to both teachers and pupils; examiners appointed not by Government but by a chartered corporation of schoolmasters, like the College of Preceptors.	I am afraid there would not be any advantage.
Possible, but more expensive.	Those preparing for mercantile, building, or engineering pursuits should.	I question the possibility, and doubt the expediency.	Yes.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Schools

——	XIII.	XIV.
28. Are there any lessons on Sundays, and what are the regulations about attendance on divine worship on Sunday?	Catechism and Bible history; attend church or chapel twice.	Reading Scripture and learning catechism: attend church ways twice and sometimes thrice.
29. What punishments are in use, and for what offence are they inflicted?	Impositions only, in proportion to the offence; most severe for falsehood and improper language; no corporal punishment resorted to.	Solitary confinement, task extra work, and occasional corporal punishment for lying stealing, swearing, fighting,
30. Are there any monitors empowered to aid in maintaining discipline; and is there any rule that the scholars should never be out of the presence of some teacher or other?	No monitors; a master is always on duty.	None - - -
31. What are the means of enforcing regularity of attendance; and what are the most frequent causes alleged for occasional absence?	Detention after school; illness generally.	By impressing its advantage parents; inclemency and verity of weather, busine &c.
32. Have the scholars access to any school library?	Yes, free to boarders - - -	Yes - - - - -
33. Playground: its size and distance from the school?	There is a playground attached to the school, and a covered gymnasium.	A playground of almost thr acres adjoining, and an att for wet weather.
34. Hours of play, and description of games?	25 to 30; cricket and gymnastic exercises; masters occasionally join.	32; marbles, cricket, &c.; m ters occasionally join; gymnasium.
35. Is drilling, or are any athletic exercises taught as a part of the school system?	Drilling - - - - -	No - - - - -
36. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be best fitted for the education of the majority of your scholars?	Commercial subjects, Latin, French, Euclid, algebra, &c., chemistry, natural philosophy.	Reading, writing, arithme geography, history, drawi book-keeping, mensurati algebra, and Latin.
37. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be preferred by the parents?	In a commercial town like Bradford parents are most anxious for a commercial education.	Those necessary for commerc pursuits.
38. What difficulties, if any, do you find in the discharge of your duty?	——	——
39. Would it, in your opinion, be an advantage or otherwise if your school were examined annually, and publicly reported on by independent examiners; and if such examiners are desirable, how should they be appointed?	My school has been regularly examined; 75 per cent. have received certificates from the College of Preceptors.	If I were commencing schl I might, but after 34 ye experience I think no adv tage; examiners by profess in the universities, &c.
40. Is it, in your judgment, possible or expedient to give boys at school a direct preparation for the particular occupations for which they may be intended by their parents?	Not unless a boy remains at school longer than is now usual.	Yes, when parents cannot affo a regular course of study.

he West Riding of Yorkshire.—Boys—*continued.*

XV.	XVI.	XVII.	XVIII.
ssons for the day read, Scripture and hymns learnt; attend church wice, and often three imes a day.	A hymn is learnt; an hour's lesson in afternoon; attend divine worship in morning; service in the house in the evening.	Study Scripture history for Monday, and repeat the collects; attend church twice.	Old and New Testament lessons for the Oxford University examinations, church history and evidences; attends place of worship desired by his friends.
positions, chiefly arithmetic; corporal punishment only by master, and publicly; impositions by masters.	Impertinence and cruelty by caning; negligence and idleness are punished with impositions, public offences publicly punished; caning and expulsion by head master only; impositions only by masters.	Punishments by head master only for idleness or rudeness; none inflicted by masters.	Shame, tasks, corporal in extreme cases, and expulsion for immorality, lying, or theft; corporal only by master, and generally private; shame and tasks the other masters.
s, by master - -	No - - - -	Monitors appointed by master.	—
ness - - - -	System of marks, visiting of parents, and dismissal; indisposition.	Keeping in and extra tasks; wanted at home.	—
—	No - - - -	The boarders have - -	Yes, on payment of 6*d.* a quarter.
playground of 7,000 square feet attached, not open to all; covered place for wet weather.	A playground of 1,888 square feet attached; a covered playground 528 square feet.	A playground of two acres three-quarters of a mile from the school, but close to the house; no covered playground.	Two playgrounds of three and six acres adjoining; a covered shed for wet weather.
; football, cricket, &c.; masters join.	30; cricket, football, &c.; masters join; there are gymnastic poles.	12; cricket, &c.; masters frequently join; no gymnasium.	Cricket, hockey, &c.; masters join; no gymnasium.
—	Yes, drilling - - -	Yes - - - -	Not just now.
istory, geography, grammar, classics, mathematics, especially compound addition, and long practice sums, to ensure accuracy,	English grammar, geography, history, reading, writing, arithmetic, chemistry, science, algebra, geometry, drawing, drilling, music, mapping, Latin, German, Greek, and French.	Reading, spelling, English grammar, writing, history, geography, Scripture, arithmetic, mensuration, algebra, Euclid, Latin, French, German, drawing.	Those specified in my circular, viz., arithmetic, grammar, analysis and composition, geography, history, &c., Latin, Greek, French, German, &c.
—	The three R's and little else	All the above except Latin	English language, its grammar and composition, geography, history, arithmetic, mechanical drawing, book-keeping, &c.
one at all; assistants are generally very badly trained.	1. Boys coming from inferior schools to finish. 2. An overweening anxiety for results.	None, except sometimes from the idleness or self-will of an over-indulged boy.	1. Parents' incompetency to judge of children's tuition. 2. The limited period pupils are sent to school.
t would be a decided advantage; examiners chosen from men as practically understand education.	Yes, if it included the whole school.	I think the university local examinations will answer every purpose.	Yes, if a really fair report were made, examiners appointed by the universities and an incorporated body of private schoolmasters jointly, and should not be against the private school system.
uite possible with the concurrence of the boys.	Not before they are 16 years of age.	In some cases; depending entirely on the kind of occupations.	In some cases.

SPECIMEN of 20 TABULATED RETURNS, &c.—Boys—*continued.*

——	XIX.	XX.
28. Are there any lessons on Sundays, and what are the regulations about attendance on divine worship on Sunday?	——	——
29. What punishments are in use, and for what offence are they inflicted?	Tasks, and sometimes corporal castigation, the former for irregularity of attendance and inattention to study, and the latter for moral delinquency done publicly.	Corporal punishment for ly and wilful insubordinati detention with lessons for other offences; all inflicted master publicly.
30. Are there any monitors empowered to aid in maintaining discipline; and is there any rule that the scholars should never be out of the presence of some teacher or other?	None are required - -	Sometimes.
31. What are the means of enforcing regularity of attendance; and what are the most frequent causes alleged for occasional absence?	Confinement in play hours; run errands, &c.	Quarterly prizes for regular detention with impositions time lost; sickness and abse from home.
32. Have the scholars access to any school library?	Yes, on payment of 6*d.* a quarter	No.
33. Playground: its size and distance from the school?	A playground in front of the school, 25 yards by 6 yards; no covered place.	No playground nor cove place.
34. Hours of play, and description of games? -	12; cricket and leaping; no master joins; no gymnasium.	Cricket; master joins; no g nasium.
35. Is drilling, or are any athletic exercises taught as a part of the school system?	No - - - -	No.
36. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be best fitted for the education of the majority of your scholars?	Those which would develope and expand the mental, moral, and physical qualities, and refine the manners.	Reading, writing, arithme grammar, book-keeping, c mercial correspondence, graphy, and drawing.
37. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be preferred by the parents?	Those only which when attained go to form a man of business.	Generally the above.
38. What difficulties, if any, do you find in the discharge of your duty?	In the apathy of parents -	In the dissatisfaction and in ference of parents.
39. Would it, in your opinion, be an advantage or otherwise if your school were examined annually, and publicly reported on by independent examiners; and if such examiners are desirable, how should they be appointed?	I think so, but not worth while in my small school.	Yes, for my own satisfacti parents do not care. master should appoint examiner to preserve school's privacy.
40. Is it, in your judgment, possible or expedient to give boys at school a direct preparation for the particular occupations for which they may be intended by their parents?	No - - - - -	Decidedly.

APPENDIX VI.—Specimens of 20 Tabulated Returns from Private Schools in the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Girls.

	I.	II.
Number of pupils	20 boarders	Four boarders, 25 day pupils.
Occupation of parents	Independent gentlemen, clergymen and professional.	Tradesmen, &c.
School fees	Boarders 50 and 60 guineas, exclusive of extras.	Boarders 35 guineas, day pupils 4 and 6 guineas, exclusive of extras.
Staff of assistants	Three at salaries from 20*l.* to 60*l.* Visiting masters for French, Italian, German, music and drawing.	One. Charge of juvenile class at mutual terms.
Meals	Three per day, luncheon and supper if required. Breakfast, tea, coffee, or milk, bread and butter; dinner, meat, pudding, or tart, and beer; tea, tea or milk, bread and butter.	Four a day. Breakfast, coffee, and bread and butter; dinner, meat, pudding, vegetables; tea, bread and butter; supper, various.
Bedrooms and discipline	Eight in largest room, three in smallest, only sisters occasionally sleep together. Rise at 6.45, retire at 9 o'clock. A lady superintends each room.	Two in largest room, one in smallest. 4,590 for three persons, not separate beds. Rise at 7, retire at 9. No discipline requisite in bedrooms.
Instruction.		
Weeks in the school year	38	40.
Knowledge required of scholars on admission	—	Merely to possess an aptitude for learning.
Whether scholars usually come from other schools, or from home teaching, and in which case are they better prepared.	About equal. Sometimes from home, sometimes from other schools.	From other schools, and preferred so.
Average time that the pupils remain in the school.	About three years	Three years.
Is the school classified— (*a*) By one leading subject or group of subjects solely, or (*b*) By one leading subject chiefly, and other subjects subordinately, or (*c*) Separately for every subject or group of subjects?	(*c*)	By the leading departments of English.
Are the scholars promoted from class to class— (*a*) By seniority, or (*b*) By marks gained for work done in the half-year, or (*c*) By examination at the end of the half-year, or (*d*) In what other way?	(*d*), by the sum of monthly good marks.	By progress.
How many hours a week are the scholars in school?	—	25.
What proportion of the lessons are learnt— (*a*) In school, (*b*) Out of school, under supervision by a teacher, (*c*) Out of school, not under supervision?	(*a*), all	All learned out of school.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Schools

	III.	IV.
1. Number of pupils	Five boarders, 21 day scholars	20 boarders, 14 day scholars
2. Occupation of parents	Commercial and professional men.	Tradesmen and farmers
3. School fees	Boarders 40 guineas, day pupils 8 and 10 guineas, exclusive of extras.	Boarders 25 and 33 guineas, exclusive of extras.
4. Staff of assistants	Four. One French resident governess, three English governesses, and visiting masters.	Three, at 32*l.*, 25*l.*, and 20*l.* per annum respectively. Visiting masters on their own terms.
5. Meals	Four a day	Four a day, and luncheon, breakfast and tea, bread and butter, with coffee or tea; dinner, animal food with pudding or pie; supper, bread and butter with milk.
6. Bedrooms and discipline	Four in largest, two in smallest. Each separate bed, excepting sisters. Rise at 6.30, retire at 9.	1,415 square feet, not separate beds. Rise at 6 in summer, 7½ in winter; retire 8 and 9. Discipline maintained by teachers.
INSTRUCTION.		
7. Weeks in the school year	39	39 to 40
8. Knowledge required of scholars on admission	To be tolerably advanced in English and French.	No standard required
9. Whether scholars usually come from other schools, or from home teaching, and in which case are they better prepared.	From both. Generally better prepared from school.	Generally former
10. Average time that the pupils remain in the school.	—	2 to 4 years
11. Is the school classified— (*a*) By one leading subject or group of subjects solely, or (*b*) By one leading subject chiefly, and other subjects subordinately, or (*c*) Separately for every subject or group of subjects?	Principally according to (*b*)	(*c*)
12. Are the scholars promoted from class to class— (*a*) By seniority, or (*b*) By marks gained for work done in the half-year, or (*c*) By examination at the end of the half-year, or (*d*) In what other way?	The pupils who are found to be most improved preferred.	According to improvement
13. How many hours a week are the scholars in school?	25 or 27	25 to 30
14. What proportion of the lessons are learnt— (*a*) In school, (*b*) Out of school, under supervision by a teacher, (*c*) Out of school, not under supervision?	—	All are learned out of school, a teacher always present, and pupils are encouraged to ask explanations.

n the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Girls—*continued.*

V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.
8 boarders, 14 day scholars	65 boarders	30 boarders	41 day scholars.
Tradesmen and merchants	Tradesmen and merchants	Gentlemen, professional men, and manufacturers.	Tradesmen and clerks.
Boarders 24 and 28 guineas, day scholars 4 and 6 guineas, exclusive of extras.	Boarders 25 guineas, exclusive of extras.	Boarders 50*l.* and 55 guineas, exclusive of extras.	Two guineas, and no extras.
Two, at 30*l.* and 25*l.* respectively. Three governess pupils and visiting masters.	Six. One at 50*l.* per annum, two at 35*l.*, two at 30*l.*, one at 20*l.*	Three non-resident at 150*l.*, 90*l.*, and 70*l.*; two resident at 30*l.* each.	One at 15*l.*, one at 8*l.*, one at 4*l.*
Five a day. Breakfast, tea, coffee, bread and butter; dinner, soup, fish, meat, vegetables, pies; luncheon, bread and butter; tea, tea, milk, cocoa, bread and butter; supper, pie, stewed fruit, bread, cheese, and treacle.	Five daily. Breakfast, tea, coffee, milk, bread and butter; lunch, one piece of thick bread and butter; dinner, pudding or soup, meat, potatoes, &c.; tea, bread, butter, tea, or milk; supper, bread and butter, and milk and water.	Four daily. Breakfast and tea, tea, bread and butter; lunch, bread, butter, and beer; dinner, boiled and roast joints, with puddings.	—
Eight in largest, four in smallest. 6,758 cubic feet for 24, not separate beds. Rise at 6 or 7; retire at 8.30, or 9. Discipline under mistress.	Eight in largest, one in smallest. 28,985 cubic feet for 65, not separate beds, unless 2 guineas extra. Rise at 7; retire at 8.30. Teacher maintains discipline.	Older pupils a room each, ten in large dormitory. 22,720 cubic feet for 20, each separate bed, unless sisters. Rise 6¾; retire at 9. Teacher or monitor in dormitory.	—
41	41	40	42.
—	Nothing in particular	Reading and writing	Not required to know anything.
From both. Generally latter preferred.	From both. No difference	From both. Decidedly from school teaching.	They have generally not had any teaching.
Two years	One year and a half	About three years	Two years.
(*a*), no; (*b*), yes; (*c*), yes	According to general attainment.	(*c*)	By reading.
(*a*), no; (*b*), yes; (*c*), yes; (*d*), by marked perseverance and industry.	By marks gained for work done every quarter.	(*c*)	(*c*).
Boarders, 60; day pupils, 30	28	33	20.
(*a*), the whole by day pupils and juniors; (*c*), senior pupils.	All learnt according to (*b*)	All under supervision, some in school time, some in preparation time.	(*a*), nearly all; (*b*), none; (*c*), a short lesson daily by the 1st class.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED Returns from Private Schools

——	IX.	X.
1. Number of pupils	19 day scholars	7 boarders, 13 day scholars
2. Occupation of parents	Professional men and tradesmen	Merchants and tradesmen
3. School fees	Ten and 12 guineas, exclusive of extras.	Boarders 53 guineas, day pupils 10 guineas, exclusive of extras.
4. Staff of assistants	One Co-principal with half profits, one assistant at 25*l.*, five visiting teachers, three governess pupils.	Five visiting masters paid by capitation fee, or a certain amount per class.
5. Meals	——	Four per day. Breakfast, cocoa, tea or milk, meat, bread and butter; dinner, beef, mutton, &c., vegetables, puddings and pies; tea, bread and butter, tea; supper, bread and butter.
6. Bedrooms and discipline	——	The largest six, smallest four. 488 cubic feet, only separate bed if preferred, or in case of delicate health. Rise at 6, retire at 8.30. Discipline maintained by rules.
INSTRUCTION.		
7. Weeks in the school year	40	40
8. Knowledge required of scholars on admission	Nothing	Nothing
9. Whether scholars usually come from other schools, or from home teaching, and in which case are they better prepared.	Generally from home teaching	Both
10. Average time that the pupils remain in the school.	——	——
11. Is the school classified— (*a*) By one leading subject, or group of subjects solely, or (*b*) By one leading subject chiefly, and other subjects subordinately, or (*c*) Separately for every subject, or group of subjects?	(*a*)	(*c*)
12. Are the scholars promoted from class to class— (*a*) By seniority, or (*b*) By marks gained for work done in the half-year, or (*c*) By examination at the end of the half-year, or (*d*) In what other way?	Partly by marks gained for work done, and partly for general improvement.	(*c*)
13. How many hours a week are the scholars in school?	26	27
14. What proportion of the lessons are learnt— (*a*) In school. (*b*) Out of school under supervision by a teacher. (*c*) Out of school not under supervision?	(*a*), nearly half; (*b*), none; (*c*), rather more than half.	(*a*), principally; (*b*), boarders.

the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Girls—*continued.*

XI.	XII.	XIII.	XIV.
22 boarders, no day pupils -	Nineteen boarders, five day pupils.	13 boarders - - -	16 boarders.
Professional men and merchants.	Farmers and tradesmen -	—	Merchants and tradesmen.
Boarders, 25 and 45 guineas	Boarders, 18 and 22 guineas; day pupils, four guineas, exclusive of extras.	—	Boarders, 35 and 40 guineas, exclusive of extras.
Three governesses at 40*l.*, 26*l.*, and 22*l.* respectively. Six visiting masters - -	Masters for music and dancing, at 30*l.* and 20*l.* respectively.	Two assistants; a foreign teacher at 55*l.*, a junior English at 30*l.*	A teacher of languages, at 30*l.*; a junior English, at 8*l.*
Three full meals and two refreshments. Breakfast, tea or coffee, bread, butter, and meat; dinner, soup, meat, vegetables, puddings; beer and wine, if required; tea, tea, bread and butter, jam occasionally; refreshments, bread, biscuit, and butter.	Five per day. Breakfast, coffee, tea, bread and butter; lunch, a piece of bread; dinner, beef or mutton, puddings or pies; tea, tea, bread and butter; supper, bread and milk.	—	Five per day. Breakfast, coffee, bread and butter; luncheon, currant and seed bread; dinner, soup, meats, vegetables, pies, puddings; tea, tea, bread and butter; supper, milk, puddings, or bread and cheese.
Six in largest and one in smallest. 24 sleep in six rooms of 15,143 cubic feet: no separate bed, except for sisters; rise at 6.50 or 7; retire at 9; discipline maintained by the presence of a governess or monitor.	Six in largest, four in smallest; 14 in 6,841 cubic feet; each a separate bed; rise at 6.30, retire at 8.30; discipline maintained by rules.	—	Eight in largest, two in smallest; 18 in 26,300 cubic feet; each a separate bed, except in case of sisters or friends; rise at 6 in summer and 7 in winter; retire at 7, younger, 9 elder; discipline maintained by rules, marks, and fines.
40 - - - -	40 - - - -	39 - - - -	41.
No standard - - -	Nothing - - -	—	Elementary instruction.
Usually from school, and preferred thus - -	Always from some other school, and never well prepared.	—	From some other schools; preferred from home teaching.
Three years - - -	Two years.	—	—
By groups as they rise to the several standards generally.	By questions on various subjects.	By general knowledge and ability.	(*c*).
As they advance in knowledge.	(*c*) - - -	Chiefly by marks gained in the examinations, but this modified according to age.	(*c*).
44 hours - - -	30 - - - -	40 - - - -	40.
All in the school or private study, and all under supervision.	(*b*), the greater part - -	—	(*b*), all.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Schools

——	XV.	XVI.
1. Number of pupils	Five boarders, 30 day pupils	Seven boarders, nine day scholars.
2. Occupation of parents	Merchants and commercial men.	Professional men and merchants
3. School fees	Boarders, 40 and 35 guineas: day pupils, eight and six guineas, exclusive of extras.	Boarders, 40*l.* and 50*l.*; day pupils, 22*l.* and 32*l.*, exclusive of extras.
4. Staff of assistants	French teacher; drilling master	French governess, 30 guineas; two visiting masters for French and English subjects; three for music, dancing, drawing.
5. Meals	Four per day. Breakfast, dinner, tea, and supper, of the best and most wholesome food.	Five a day. Breakfast, coffee, bread and butter; luncheon, bread; dinner, beef or mutton, puddings and tarts; tea, tea, bread and butter; supper, bread and milk.
6. Bedrooms and discipline	Two in one and three in other; 10 for 2,302 cubic feet; each a separate bed; rise at 6 or 7; retire at 9; discipline maintained by rules.	Four in largest, one in smallest; 7,038 cubic feet; each a separate bed; rise at 6.30 or 7; retire at 8 or 9; rules maintain discipline.
INSTRUCTION.		
7. Weeks in the school year	40	38
8. Knowledge required of scholars on admission	——	——
9. Whether scholars usually come from other schools, or from home teaching, and in which case are they better prepared.	From both	About equal; home teaching preferred.
10. Average time that the pupils remain in the school.	Six to 10 years	Three to five years
11. Is the school classified— (*a*) By one leading subject, or group of subjects solely, or (*b*) By one leading subject chiefly, and other subjects subordinately, or (*c*) Separately for every subject, or group of subjects?	(*a*)	——
12. Are the scholars promoted from class to class— (*a*) By seniority, or (*b*) By marks gained for work done in the half-year, or (*c*) By examination at the end of the half-year, or (*d*) In what other way?	(*a*)	Generally by degree of attainment; but occasionally by seniority.
13. How many hours a week are the scholars in school?	26	33
14. What proportion of the lessons are learnt— (*a*) In school. (*b*) Out of school under supervision by a teacher. (*c*) Out of school not under supervision?	(*c*), chiefly. (*a*), the younger pupils.	An equal proportion in and out of school; the latter in the presence of a teacher, but without her aid.

n the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Girls—*continued.*

XVII.	XVIII.	XIX.	XX.
—	—	16 boarders, 30 day pupils.	—
Professional men	Merchants and manufacturers.	—	Merchants and manufacturers.
—	Boarders, 27 guineas; day scholars, 8 guineas, exclusive of extras.	Boarders, 28*l.* and 30*l.*; day pupils, 8*l.*, exclusive of extras.	—
Visiting masters as required, at generally 6 guineas per annum for each pupil.	One French governess, 25*l.*; three pupil trainers, who receive education for their services.	Two English and one foreign, at 40*l.*, 30*l.*, and 20*l.* respectively.	Five visiting masters
Four per day	Four per day. Breakfast and tea, tea or coffee, bread and butter; dinner, meat, vegetables, puddings; supper, bread and butter or cheese.	Four per day. Breakfast and tea, tea, coffee, or milk, bread and butter; dinner, meat, vegetables, bread, puddings; supper, bread and butter, or tarts.	Five per day.
Five in largest, and two in smallest; each a separate bed, except sisters.	Largest, 5; smallest, 2; each a separate bed; rise at 6 and 6.30; retire at 9; monitors maintain discipline.	Five in largest, two in smallest: some have a separate bed; rise at 6 in summer, 7 in winter; retire at 8 or 9, according to age; discipline maintained by teachers.	From 8 to 2; 400 cubic feet for each; not each a separate bed; rise at 6 and 7, retire at 8.30; teachers maintain discipline.
40	41	40	40.
No fixed qualification	—	No rule	No requirement.
Principally home teaching; from other schools preferred.	Chiefly from other schools, and preferred so.	From other schools, and preferred so.	About equally; former preferred.
Two years	Three and a half to four years.	Two to six years.	Two to three years.
(*b*)	—	By group of subjects usually	(*c*).
According to their knowledge.	(*b*) and (*c*) combined	By examination principally	By monthly examinations.
35	Day scholars 28; boarders, 35½.	Day scholars 30; boarders more.	30.
(*b*) and (*c*)	Boarders all in school, day pupils one-half in school.	All under supervision	(*b*), all lessons.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private School

——	I.	II.
15. In learning Latin, Greek, French, and German lessons, are the scholars allowed— (*a*) To use translations, or (*b*) To have assistance from a teacher, or (*c*) To have no aid but grammar and dictionary?	(*b*) and (*c*), according to their state of advance.	(*c*), only
16. Are Latin, Greek, French, and German exercises done— (*a*) In prose, (*b*) In verse?	(*a*), in prose	(*a*)
17. Are such exercises, if any— (*a*) Short sentences taken from exercise books, or (*b*) Continuous pieces for translation, or (*c*) Original composition?	All three— (*a*), not confined to short; (*b*) ; (*c*), by advanced pupils.	(*a*) and (*b*)
18. Are examples in arithmetic or mathematics— (*a*) Taken from text books, (*b*) Dictated orally by the teacher. (*c*) Set in writing?	(*a*) and (*b*), chiefly; (*c*), only to very young pupils.	(*a*) and (*b*)
19. Are the scholars taught history— (*a*) From abridgments, (*b*) From standard authors, (*c*) From oral lectures?	From (*a*) and (*b*)	Mrs. Markham's England, an Lord's Modern Europe.
20. Are the scholars taught natural history, physics, or chemistry— (*a*) By text books, (*b*) By oral lectures, (*c*) With specimen objects and experiments shown by the teacher or lecturer, (*d*) With specimen objects handled and experiments worked by the scholars themselves.	By (*a*), and by reading different authors.	(*a*)
21. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way?— (*a*) Geometrical drawing. (*b*) Perspective. (*c*) Freehand drawings from the flat. (*d*) Freehand drawing from models. (*e*) Colouring.	(*b*), orally; (*c*) and (*e*)	(*c*) by visiting teacher
22. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way?— (*a*) Harmony. (*b*) Instrumental music. (*c*) Class Singing. (*d*) Solo singing.	All are taught; (*a*) not separately but in connexion with the others.	(*b*) by visiting master.
23. How often is the school examined? by what examiners? and in what subjects?	——	Twice yearly: by the princip in the subjects taught.
24. What system of prizes and rewards is in use in the school?	Competition by marks given through the term; prizes for conduct and different studies.	Medals and books according marks: marks given for lesso and conduct.
25. Is the school connected with any, and if so, with what, religious denomination?	The Church of England	With none.
26. What provision is made for religious instruction and for prayers?	Bible classes, learning Scripture, &c.; monthly class by the clergyman; Oxenden's Family Prayers morning and evening.	Exercises on biblical subje written weekly; begin w prayers from Henry Tho ton's.

n the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Girls—*continued.*

III.	IV.	V.	VI.
(*a*), no; (*b*), no; (*c*), yes.	French (*b*) - - -	French and German; (*a*), no; (*b*), occasional; (*c*), yes.	They have aid from all three.
French and German in both	French and German (*a*) -	French and German in both	In prose.
All three - - -	(*b*) and (*c*) - - -	(*a*), yes; (*b*), yes; (*c*), chiefly letters.	All three are used.
Principally from books, but also (*b*) and (*c*).	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*) - -	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*) - -	All three.
From (*a*) and (*b*), according to the class.	(*a*) and (*b*) - - -	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*) - -	(*a*) and (*b*).
From books at present. Lectures preferred if they could be obtained.	Botany only, (*a*), (*b*), and (*c*).	(*a*), no; (*b*), (*c*), and (*d*) -	Very little is taught of these.
b), (*c*), (*d*), and (*e*).	(*b*) and (*e*) - - -	(*b*), (*c*), (*d*), and (*e*) - -	(*b*), (*c*), and (*e*).
b). yes; (*c*), yes, from notes.	(*b*), (*c*), and (*d*) - -	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), by a professor of music.	(*b*) and (*d*).
Twice yearly, slightly also at Easter and Michaelmas; by the principal; and in all subjects.	Half-yearly; by principal and teachers; in subjects taught.	Every six weeks and half-yearly; by the principal; in subjects on which oral lessons have been given or lessons prepared.	Weekly and half-yearly; by principal and teachers; in all subjects.
Prizes for leading subjects according to half-year's marks.	No prizes given - -	By the mark-book, or from noticed earnest application.	Books for most quarterly marks, and eight for conduct marks.
Church of England.	Church of England and Wesleyan.	The Congregational Church.	The Established Church.
Religious instruction daily; school commences with Collect for the day and Bible reading.	Daily religious instruction by clergyman and Wesleyan minister in alternate weeks; prayers by Rev. J. C. Goodhart.	Study of Scripture daily; ministerial examination and addresses; prayers from Jay's "Devotions."	General lessons; begins and ends with prayers.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private School

——	VII.	VIII.
15. In learning Latin, Greek, French, and German lessons, are the scholars allowed— (*a*) To use translations, or (*b*) To have assistance from a teacher, or (*c*) To have no aid but grammar and dictionary?	(*c*)	——
16. Are Latin, Greek, French, and German exercises done— (*a*) In prose, (*b*) In verse?	In prose	——
17. Are such exercises, if any— (*a*) Short sentences taken from exercise books, or (*b*) Continuous pieces for translation, or (*c*) Original composition?	(*b*) and (*c*)	——
18. Are examples in arithmetic or mathematics— (*a*) Taken from text books, (*b*) Dictated orally by the teacher, (*c*) Set in writing?	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)
19. Are the scholars taught history— (*a*) From abridgments, (*b*) From standard authors, (*c*) From oral lectures?	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*a*) and (*c*)
20. Are the scholars taught natural history, physics, or chemistry— (*a*) By text books, (*b*) By oral lectures, (*c*) With specimen objects and experiments shown by the teacher or lecturer, (*d*) With specimen objects handled and experiments worked by the scholars themselves?	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	Natural history (*a*), (*b*), and (*c*
21. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way? (*a*) Geometrical drawing, (*b*) Perspective, (*c*) Freehand drawings from the flat, (*d*) Freehand drawing from models, (*e*) Colouring.	(*b*), (*d*), and (*e*)	——
22. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way?— (*a*) Harmony, (*b*) Instrumental music, (*c*) Class singing, (*d*) Solo singing.	(*b*), (*c*), and (*d*)	Class singing
23. How often is the school examined? by what examiners? and in what subjects?	Constantly, and at the end of each half-year by principal in all subjects.	——
24. What system of prizes and rewards is in use in the school?	Prizes to all who gain a certain number of marks.	None
25. Is the school connected with any, and if so, with what, religious denomination?	Church of England	No
26. What provision is made for religious instruction and for prayers?	Scripture lessons regularly by clergyman; Thornton's "prayers" are used.	Begins with a short prayer hymn.

in the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Girls—*continued.*

IX.	X.	XI.	XII.
(*c*), only	(*b*), occasionally; (*c*), yes	(*b*) only	(*c*), only.
(*a*), in prose	(*a*)	In prose	In prose.
(*a*) and (*b*)	(*a*) and (*b*)	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*a*).
(*a*), yes; (*b*), chiefly; (*c*), yes.	(*a*), (*b*), a (*c*)	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*a*).
(*a*) and (*c*)	(*a*) and (*b*)	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*a*), generally.
Simple oral lectures on scientific subjects are given once a week.	Physics; (*a*), (*b*), (*c*), and (*d*).	Natural history taught by oral lectures. No specimens.	—
(*c*) and (*e*)	(*a*), on blackboard, from Burchett; (*c*), from copies; (*d*.	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), and (*e*)	(*c*).
(*b*), the pianoforte	(*a*), by oral and written instruction; (*b*), piano and harp; (*c*) and (*d*).	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), and (*d*), by professors.	(*b*) the pianoforte.
Never, except by its own teachers.	Half-yearly; by each teacher in his or her department, in presence of principal.	Every 6 months by the principal. In all subjects taught.	Every half year by the principals in all subjects.
Prizes in each English and French class; also for regular attendance and good conduct.	—	By tickets for diligence and conduct which would enable every girl to earn 2 prizes every half-year.	No rewards on principle.
No	The principals are Wesleyans.	Church of England	Not officially connected with anybody.
Scripture or catechism read and explained daily; begins but not ends with original written prayers.	Daily Bible lessons; prayers night and morning, extemporaneous or from Rev. E. Bickersteth.	Daily religious instruction, superintended by the vicar. A selection of prayers used from the Prayer Book.	Daily Scripture lessons. Thornton's Family Prayers, morning and evening.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Schoo

——	XIII.	XIV.
15. In learning Latin, Greek, French, and German lessons, are the scholars allowed— (*a*) To use translations, or (*b*) To have assistance from a teacher, or (*c*) To have no aid but grammar and dictionary?	(*c*), only	(*b*) and (*c*)
16. Are Latin, Greek, French, and German exercises done— (*a*) In prose. (*b*) In verse?	French and German in prose	Both (*a*) and (*b*)
17. Are such exercises, if any— (*a*) Short sentences taken from exercise books, or (*b*) Continuous pieces for translation, or (*c*) Original composition?	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*a*) and (*b*)
18. Are examples in arithmetic or mathematics— (*a*) Taken from text books. (*b*) Dictated orally by the teacher. (*c*) Set in writing?	(*a*)	(*a*) and (*b*)
19. Are the scholars taught history— (*a*) From abridgments. (*b*) From standard authors. (*c*) From oral lectures?	(*a*), for younger pupils (*b*), for elder pupils	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)
20. Are the scholars taught natural history, physics, or chemistry— (*a*) By text books. (*b*) By oral lectures. (*c*) With specimen objects and experiments shown by the teacher or lecturer. (*d*) With specimen objects handled and experiments worked by the scholars themselves?	——	(*a*)
21. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way— (*a*) Geometrical drawing. (*b*) Perspective. (*c*) Freehand drawing from the flat. (*d*) Freehand drawing from models. (*e*) Colouring?	(*c*) and (*e*) by a master	(*b*) and (*c*)
22. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way— (*a*) Harmony. (*b*) Instrumental music. (*c*) Class singing. (*d*) Solo singing?	(*b*) and (*c*) by professors	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), and (*d*), by pr fessors.
23. How often is the school examined; by what examiners; and in what subjects?	By the principal, assisted by teachers in all subjects.	Half-yearly by the principals all subjects.
24. What system of prizes and rewards is in use in the school?	Prizes for a certain number of marks given for lessons and attention.	Books are given according the number of marks obtain in the half-year.
25. Is the school connected with any, and if so, with what, religious denomination?	Church of England	Wesleyan Methodists
26. What provision is made for religious instruction and for prayers?	Bible lessons daily. Catechising fortnightly by the clergyman.	Daily Bible lessons. Family w ship morning and eveni Bickersteth's Family Praye and extemporaneous used.

n the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Girls—*continued.*

XV.	XVI.	XVII.	XVIII.
Generally no assistance but (*c*).	(*a*) is sanctioned, but not used much. (*b*) and (*c*).	(*c*), only	(*b*) and (*c*), only.
French exercises in prose	In prose	—	In prose.
(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*).
(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*)	(*b*), by the master	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*)	(*a*), yes; (*b*), once a week; (*c*), no.
(*a*) and (*b*)	(*a*) and (*c*)	(*a*) and (*b*)	(*a*) and (*b*).
(*a*), on natural history and physics.	(*b*), occasionally only	—	(*a*) and (*b*).
(*b*), (*c*), (*d*), and (*e*)	(*b*), (*c*), (*d*), (*e*) by a master superintended by one of the principals.	(*b*), (*c*), (*d*), (*e*)	(*a*) only slightly (*b*), (*d*) and (*e*).
(*b*), (*c*) and (*d*)	(*b*) and (*d*) by professors	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*)	(*a*) once a week (*b*), (*c*), and (*d*).
—	Quarterly, by principals and teachers in all subjects.	Half-yearly by the principals. Small subjects.	Half-yearly, by written questions from mistress in all subjects.
Prizes once a year for greatest number of marks. Also for good conduct and punctuality.	Two rewards in each English class, and one in French class, for proficiency. Rewards also for punctuality, &c.	—	A prize half-yearly to 1st in each class for marks in half-year, and examination one for good conduct. A monthly holiday for good conduct.
—	The Established Church	The Church of England	Church of England.
Daily Scripture lessons. Schools open every morning by repeating 103rd Psalm. Then a collect or extemporaneous prayer.	Daily Bible lesson: Prayers of "Cassell's," edited by Rev. E. Garbett and Rev S. Martin, read morning and evening.	Daily instruction. Begin and end school work with prayers.	Daily Bible lessons. Clergyman visits monthly. School begins and ends with reading of the Bible.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Schools in the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Girls—*continued.*

——	XIX.	XX.
15. In learning Latin, Greek, French, and German lessons, are the scholars allowed— (*a*) To use translations, or (*b*) To have assistance from a teacher, or (*c*) To have no aid but grammar and dictionary?	(*b*), when required - - -	(*b*) and (*c*), when required.
16. Are Latin, Greek, French, and German exercises done— (*a*) In prose. (*b*) In verse.	In prose - - - -	In prose.
17. Are such exercises, if any— (*a*) Short sentences taken from exercise books, or (*b*) Continuous pieces for translation, or (*c*) Original composition?	——	(*a*), for beginners; (*b*) and (*c*
18. Are examples in arithmetic or mathematics— (*a*) Taken from text books. (*b*) Dictated orally by the teacher. (*c*) Set in writing?	(*a*), (*b*), and (*c*) - - -	(*a*).
19. Are the scholars taught history— (*a*) From abridgments. (*b*) From standard authors. (*c*) From oral lectures?	(*a*) - - - - -	(*a*), for beginners; (*b*) and (*c*)
20. Are the scholars taught natural history, physics, or chemistry— (*a*) By text books. (*b*) By oral lectures. (*c*) With specimen objects and experiments shown by the teacher or lecturer. (*d*) With specimen objects handled and experiments worked by the scholars themselves?	(*a*) - - - - -	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*).
21. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way— (*a*) Geometrical drawing. (*b*) Perspective. (*c*) Freehand drawing from the flat. (*d*) Freehand drawing from models. (*e*) Colouring?	(*c*), (*d*), and (*e*) by a master and a lady in class.	(*a*), (*b*), (*d*), and (*e*).
22. Are the following subjects taught, and in what way— (*a*) Harmony. (*b*) Instrumental music. (*c*) Class singing. (*d*) Solo singing.	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*), by professors -	(*a*), (*b*), (*c*), (*d*).
23. How often is the school examined; by what examiners; and in what subjects?	Monthly and half-yearly, by principal. In all subjects.	Weekly by the principal a professors. In all subjects.
24. What system of prizes and rewards is in use in the school?	No regular system - -	No rewards given by princi Rewards given by profess for accomplishments.
25. Is the school connected with any, and if so, with what, religious denomination?	The Established Church and Independent.	Wesleyan and Church of E land.
26. What provision is made for religious instruction and for prayers?	Clergyman's visits weekly for religious instruction, and has a class at his own house. Bickersteth's Prayers night and morning.	Bible classes. Family pray night and morning.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Schools in the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Girls—*continued.*

——	I.	II.
27. Are there any lessons on Sundays, and what are the regulations about attendance on divine worship on Sunday?	Collects, catechism; sermons heard at church are written; all attend church twice.	No, a strict day of rest; regular attendance on divine worship.
28. What punishments are in use, and for what offences are they inflicted?	Forfeits and marks which influence the half-yearly rewards.	Impositions for disobedience and carelessness by principal only.
29. Are there any monitors empowered to aid in maintaining discipline, and is there any rule that the scholars should never be out of the presence of some teacher or other?	——	None.
30. What are the means of enforcing regularity of attendance, and what are the most frequent causes alleged for occasional absence from school?	——	Simply the roll-call; illness.
31. Have the scholars access to any school library?	Yes, on condition of replacing the book.	——
32. Playground—its size and distance from the school.	A good sized garden, surrounds the house, school, and dining room used for dancing when wet.	——
33. Hours of play and description of games	24. Games usual for young ladies. Teachers occasionally present.	——
34. Are calisthenics taught as a part of the school system?	By the dancing mistress	Chest expanders used every morning.
35. Are there any school bounds beyond the school precincts, or are the scholars allowed to walk out only when accompanied by a teacher?	Walk every day, weather permitting. Always accompanied by one or more ladies.	——
Are the seats provided with backs?	Most seats have backs.	No backs.
36. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be best fitted for the education of the majority of your scholars?	——	The practical subjects.
37. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be preferred by the parents?	——	Those which give least trouble at home.
38. What difficulties, if any, do you find in the discharge of your duty?	——	The partiality of parents. Carelessness of children. Small value attached to education.
39. Would it, in your opinion, be an advantage or otherwise if your school were examined annually and publicly reported on by independent examiners? If such examiners are desirable, how should they be appointed?	Not an advantage	An advantage, and appointed by Schools Inquiry Commission.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Schoo

——	III.	IV.
27. Are there any lessons on Sundays, and what are the regulations about attendance on divine worship on Sunday?	Church catechism and explanation, collect, Scriptures and hymns read and explained; attends twice the church.	The morning's sermon written i 1½ hours in the afternoon, c catechism; attend church c chapel as requested by parent
28. What punishments are in use, and for what offences are they inflicted?	Fines for carelessness, want of order, &c.; temporary banishment for serious offences.	No stated punishments; admon tion, and expulsion for lyin stealing, &c.
29. Are there any monitors empowered to aid in maintaining discipline, and is there any rule that the scholars should never be out of the presence of some teacher or other?	Never out of sight of a teacher	No monitors; never out of sigh of a teacher.
30. What are the means of enforcing regularity of attendance, and what are the most frequent causes alleged for occasional absence from school?	Attendance marks lost; sickness	Visiting - - -
31. Have the scholars access to any school library?	——	Yes, on condition of carefu usage.
32. Playground—its size and distance from the school.	A tolerably large playground attached. Dance in schoolroom in wet weather.	A playground, one minute's wal from school, for boarders onl No place for wet weather.
33. Hours of play and description of games -	Walk every day, Croquet, hoops, balls, &c. Teachers join sometimes.	12 hours. Walking out-doo games, and dancing in winte Teachers join.
34. Are calisthenics taught as a part of the school system?	A drill master attends the school	Yes - - - -
35. Are there any school bounds beyond the school precincts, or are the scholars allowed to walk out only when accompanied by a teacher?	Always accompanied by a teacher	Never alone - -
Are the seats provided with backs?	Chairs are used - - -	Most have backs - -
36. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be best fitted for the education of the majority of your scholars?	English in all its branches of primary importance for all. Music and French.	Religious instruction. A sour English education, combine with accomplishments an habits of order.
37. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be preferred by the parents?	A sound English education *generally* preferred. Accomplishments secondarily.	The majority prefer accomplis ments; few are anxious for solid education.
38. What difficulties, if any, do you find in the discharge of your duty?	The inexperience of young teachers. Generally very pleasant.	Want of co-operation in parent and indifference in pupils all useful knowledge.
39. Would it, in your opinion, be an advantage or otherwise if your school were examined annually and publicly reported on by independent examiners If such examiners are desirable, how should they be appointed	An advantage to be annually examined, but *not publicly* reported on.	Yes, privately, but doub whether bringing girls befo the public would be any a vantage.

the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Girls—*continued.*

V.	VI.	VII.	VIII.
Hymns and Scripture learnt; attend in the morning their own place of worship and in the evening the congregational church.	Lessons in afternoon; church twice in morning and afternoon.	Lessons in afternoon, Scripture or catechism, &c.; attends church twice.	—
Deprivation of marks, forfeits, or a day in bed; the first by assistants.	Bad marks; impositions for unpunctuality, &c.	Loss of good marks, small forfeits, and silence.	Disobedience is punished by placing them in a part of the room alone.
Monitors maintain order; appointed by the principal.	Elder girls are monitors in turns after being at school half a year.	Yes, for the keeping of order and neatness; a teacher always present.	—
Bad marks; company at home.	—	—	None; bad weather.
Yes, and fined if returned mutilated.	Yes, only return it clean -	Yes, by permission - -	No.
A field of 10 acres, ¼ of a mile from school is used. Dining room for wet weather.	10 acres of land surround the house. No place for wet weather.	A playground of 2,000 yards for all adjoining	None.
20. Croquet, archery, &c. Teachers join.	18. Cricket, swing, ball, dancing; teachers join.	20. Croquet, skipping, &c. teacher always present and joins.	—
Yes, weekly - - - -	Yes - - -	Yes, constantly. In winter daily.	—
Usually accompanied -	Always accompanied -	Accompanied with teacher.	—
With and without backs -	No backs - - - -	No backs.	—
Grammar and analysis, geography with globes, history, philosophy, geology, astronomy, &c.	Writing, spelling, arithmetic, grammar, and plain needle-work, music, &c.	English subjects. French and German, music, dancing and drawing.	Reading, writing, arithmetic, and familiar instruction in history and geography.
Generally the most showy -	Accomplishments and good writing.	In the above, drawing and dancing least appreciated.	Reading and a general knowledge of common things.
A previous bad education, and parental indifference.	Not any in particular -	An imperfect and faulty early training; too short stay; incompetent English teachers.	None of importance.
Many parents would object. A decided advantage to the pupils. Examiners appointed by an intelligent educational committee.	An advantage to intelligent girls with nerve, and make teachers more diligent; should be afraid to try it.	Pupils do not need it, but English governesses do very much; not found one commonly efficient in 20 years.	An advantage, I think, and appointed in any manner that would render them free from local or class influences.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Schoo

——	IX.	X.
27. Are there any lessons on Sundays and what are the regulations about attendance on divine worship on Sunday?	——	Lessons in Scripture; psalmody attend divine worship twice.
28. What punishments are in use, and for what offences are they inflicted?	Bad marks for disorderly conduct; lessons learnt after school.	Carelessness by imposition graver offences by remo strance and intercour stopped with fellow pupils.
29. Are there any monitors empowered to aid in maintaining discipline; and is there any rule that the scholars should never be out of the presence of some teacher or other?	——	A governess pupil -
30. What are the means of enforcing regularity of attendance; and what are the most frequent causes alleged for occasional absence from school?	Marks; illness - - -	Half-yearly prizes; visiting sickness.
31. Have the scholars access to any school library?	No - - - - -	Yes, to keep them clean a tidy.
32. Playground—its size and distance from the school.	None - - - -	A playground of 502½ sq. ft. joining school-room, 321 cu feet for wet weather.
33. Hours of play and description of games -	——	12. Too many to be name teacher frequently joins.
34. Are calisthenics taught as a part of the school system?	Yes - - - - -	Yes. - - - -
35. Are there any school bounds beyond the school precincts, or are the scholars allowed to walk out only when accompanied by a teacher? Are the seats provided with backs?	—— No backs - - - -	Daily walks are accompanied a teacher; sometimes 2 go out without. Backs for older and deli pupils.
36. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be best fitted for the education of the majority of your scholars?	Reading, writing, composition, letter-writing, arithmetic, geography, grammar, history, needle-work, French, music.	The ordinary routine of Eng studies. Music and Fren
37. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be preferred by the parents?	Music and letter-writing -	The above - - -
38. What difficulties, if any, do you find in the discharge of your duty?	Want of more active home interest. Need of a thorough training for teaching.	The short stay of pupil school. Lack of home pline.
39. Would it, in your opinion, be an advantage or otherwise, if your school were examined annually and publicly reported on by independent examiners. If such examiners are desirable, how should they be appointed?	An advantage. By Government	A decided advantage in kee teachers up to the mark in stimulating pupils; examiners should be lay and appointed by the mittee of Council on E tion.

the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Girls—*continued.*

XI.	XII.	XIII.	XIV.
Explanation of the collect catechising, sermon writing, sacred music. Church attended twice.	Two short ones. A Scripture lesson in the evening. Church attended twice.	Scripture lessons. Sermon writing. Sacred music. Church attended twice.	Select Sabbath class. Sacred poetry learnt. All attend chapel twice.
Extra lessons. Loss of tickets. Sending to bed. The last by principal only.	No punishment is necessary beyond a grave word or look.	No punishments, but loss of marks.	Fines and marks for breaking school rules, impositions.
irst class girls are appointed by head of school. No rules, but always kept under supervision.	No - - - - -	—	No monitors.
—	No means require regular attendance. Illness.	—	—
es, by a payment of 3*s.* per annum.	—	—	Yes.
playground of 4,715 square yards adjoining the school; Schoolroom 14 feet × 18 feet for wet weather.	A playground of three-quarters of an acre, surrounds the school; schoolroom used in wet weather.	—	A playground of 1,800 square yards adjoining, and a covered place for wet weather.
hours, archery, croquet, skipping, &c.; teachers nearly always present.	20, dancing, swinging; teachers frequently join.	—	15, swinging, skipping, hoops, and balls; teachers sometimes join.
es - - - - -	Dancing has superseded calisthenics.	All take lessons from a drill-sergeant.	Yes.
o - - - - -	Not allowed to walk abroad without a teacher.	—	Never walk out without a teacher.
ats have backs - -	No backs - - -	—	No backs.
eligious instruction, moral training, with the fundamentals of a good English education, music, modern languages, and Latin.	Scripture, grammar, geography, history, arithmetic, English composition, and French.	The real *drawing out* of the mind should be the great object aimed at.	History, geography, grammar, composition, writing, and arithmetic.
ne common branches of a good English education, with French, vocal, and instrumental music.	Seldom prefer anything; music generally.	They value good teaching, but lay great stress on accomplishments.	Generally the accomplishments.
ne large number of subjects required by parents.	The short stay of pupils at school.	The time given to accomplishments.	Want of application on the part of the pupils.
o advantage - -	Inspection very doubtful -	Examinations questionable to the girl, but good for teachers.	Not an advantage, as a public examiner could not be in a position to obtain a correct knowledge of the pupil's attainments.

SPECIMENS of 20 TABULATED RETURNS from Private Schoo

——	XV.	XVI.
27. Are there any lessons on Sundays, and what are the regulations about attendance on divine worship on Sunday?	Scripture: sermon required to be written. Bible reading. Attends service twice.	Bible readings, repetition c collects, Church catechism All attend church twice.
28. What punishments are in use, and for what offences are they inflicted?	Marks deducted, and impositions given in proportion to the offence.	Bad marks, impositions, enforce ment of silence, restriction t bed-room for untruthfulnes insubordination, &c.
29. Are there any monitors empowered to aid in maintaining discipline; and is there any rule that the scholars should never be out of the presence of some teacher or other?	——	Monitors for order in the scho rooms.
	——	As a rule never out of sight teacher.
30. What are the means of enforcing regularity of attendance; and what are the most frequent causes alleged for occasional absence from school?	Loss of marks and impositions. Visiting, and occasionally indisposition.	Fines and loss of marks. Illne
31. Have the scholars access to any school library?	——	Yes; by a small annual payme
32. Playground—its size and distance from the school.	A long airy room for wet weather.	A garden used as playgrou 43 × 28 feet adjoining.
33. Hours of play and description of games -	——	An hour daily for walking a garden exercises, besides c quet, les grâces, &c.
34. Are calisthenics taught as a part of the school system?	Yes, by a drill master, and by teachers.	Yes - - - -
35. Are there any school bounds beyond the school precincts, or are the scholars allowed to walk out only when accompanied by a teacher?	Never walk out without a teacher.	Always walk accompanied b teacher.
Are the seats provided with backs?	Some have backs - - -	Seats have backs -
36. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be best fitted for the education of the majority of your scholars?	——	Grammar, geography, histo astronomy, languages, c position, &c., &c.
37. What subjects of instruction do you believe to be preferred by the parents?	——	The above generally. S prefer the accomplishmen
38. What difficulties, if any, do you find in the discharge of your duty?	——	Over indulgence of par Neglect of early training, morally and intellectually
39. Would it, in your opinion, be an advantage or otherwise, if your school were examined annually and publicly reported on by independent examiners. If such examiners are desirable, how should they be appointed?	We do not think an annual examination desirable, as they are regularly examined by their teachers.	We consider the subject to grave objection. The licity would tend to de those modest feelings w are a woman's chief ornam and foster a love of displa a forward manner.
		Excitement prejudicial to vous girl's health.
		A correct estimate difficul form of a school from examinations.

in the West Riding of Yorkshire.—Girls—*continued.*

XVII.	XVIII.	XIX.	XX.
Write the sermon from memory. Attend church twice.	A Scripture school in the afternoon. Attend church twice.	Scripture lessons. Suitable readings. Sacred music. Attend service twice.	Bible lessons. Attend chapel or church twice.
—	Extra lessons for disorder in school hours. Keeping in for bad lessons. Pole exercise for carriage, &c.	Loss of conduct marks for indolence and inattention.	A portion of needlework. Fines for disorderly conduct.
—	—	—	No.
—	—	—	No.
—	Bad marks and loss of places. Ill health or severe weather.	Loss of marks. Illness -	Fines. Sickness.
—	—	Yes - - - -	Yes.
—	The use of the Botanical Gardens near the house.	A playground of 700 square yards adjoining, and a room for wet weather.	A playground of 20 acres surrounding the school; schoolroom for wet weather.
—	6 hours at least - -	12 to 16, according to age; walking, dancing, croquet, ball.	27 hours, croquet, archery, ball, chess, &c. Teachers join.
—	Drilled twice a week -	Exercises for the boarders -	Yes.
Always walk accompanied by a teacher.	—	Always accompanied by a teacher.	Always accompanied by a teacher.
Seats have backs - -	No backs - - -	No backs - - -	All have not backs.
—	History, geography, arithmetic, natural history, a knowledge of common things, music, French, German, drawing, and needle-work.	—	Mathematics, the sciences, and language, especially English composition, and literature.
Generally the development of the moral rather than the intellectual qualities.	Generally the accomplishments.	—	Uneducated prefer the accomplishments; better educated the more solid studies.
Pupils' short stay at school, and neglect of early training.	Generally from parents not knowing the requirements of a good education and the nature of teaching.	Too much indulgence on the part of parents; neglect of early training, and short stay at school.	Inefficiency of teachers: influence of children over their parents respecting their stay at school.
Not an advantage in my school; but an advantage in schools where the pupils are intended for governesses. The greater proportion of examiners should be ladies, as best fitted to judge of a young ladies' requirements.	An advantage to the scholars Examiners should not be connected with the neighbourhood.	Decidedly an advantage - Examiners appointed by Government.	The excitement would have an injurious effect on pupils, and would not offer any countervailing advantage.

SCHOOLS INQUIRY COMMISSION.

REPORT

BY

MR. J. BRYCE.

SYNOPSIS.

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REPORT.

My Lords and Gentlemen,

I have the honour to lay before you a report on the district into the schools of which you directed me to inquire—the County Palatine of Lancaster.

Two centuries ago this county was one of the wildest and most thinly-peopled parts of England. The towns were small, and were separated from one another by large tracts of moss and bog and unenclosed sandy ground; the people were poor compared with those of southern England; their agriculture backward, their manners rude. Within the last sixty years, by the growth of the cotton manufacture, the wealth of Lancashire has come to exceed that of any other part of England, the metropolis excepted, and its population is not only absolutely greater but denser than that of any other county. This population, however (2,429,440), is very unequally distributed over its area. While the southern and south-eastern parts are almost a continuous town, the north and west contain a great deal of lonely and primitive country, little visited by strangers, and full of pretty scenery of whose existence the Lancashire people themselves are scarcely aware. Even where manufactures have spread from the towns along the lines of railway, one may frequently find under the shadow of the factory chimney a quiet old manor house, deep in trees, and hard by a hamlet, scarcely changed since the days of the Stuarts.

There is, indeed, no district where the contrasts of old and new are more striking, nor where, within a narrow territorial compass, there is a greater variety as well in the external aspect of the country as in the social and economical condition of the people. The division which naturally suggests itself to a stranger is not the political one into north and south, but rather into the manufacturing district, occupying the south-east and south-central parts of the county; the agricultural, lying all along the coast; and the pastoral in the north on the borders of Yorkshire and around the shores of Windermere and Coniston Water. The two great towns, moreover, which dispute the honour of the second place in England, are in many respects most unlike, not only to the rural districts and the lesser towns, but even to each other. As in the nature of their business, as in the character and manners of their inhabitants, so also in matters of education there is a difference between Manchester and Liverpool more easily felt than described yet very real. Thus there were virtually four or five different districts set before me, the phenomena of each of which it was necessary to study separately and with equal care. And the existence in all of them of schools notably various in position and character, and of several religious and political parties with the views and schools of each of which it was proper to become acquainted, made the whole problem a very intricate, although a proportionately interesting one.

Magnitude of the inquiry: plan pursued.

Looking as well to this intricacy as to the quantity of work to be done, that is to say, to the size and population of the county, it was evidently impossible to see anything like the whole number of its schools, or to make the examination in most of those seen a minute and exhaustive one. To have visited every school in Manchester or in Liverpool alone, testing each by the performances of its pupils, would have consumed six months, and consumed them after all to no great purpose. Finding, therefore, that it was necessary to make a selection, I thought that I should best carry out your instructions by devoting my chief attention to the endowed schools.* I visited all of these to the number of 62, and with one or two trivial exceptions,† examined their scholars in the principal subjects taught. Next in importance to these stood the new foundations, or, as they are commonly but somewhat loosely called, the proprietary schools—such as Stonyhurst, Rossall, and the three great day schools at Liverpool. These also, by the kindness of the governing bodies and head masters, I was enabled to inspect. Thirdly came the private schools, from the multitude whereof it was necessary for me to select a comparatively small number to be visited, endeavouring of course to choose for inspection and examination such as seemed likely to be fair specimens of the whole—types from which it was possible to judge of a class. Of these I visited about forty boys' and the same number of girls' schools, some in Manchester and Liverpool; one or two in each of the chief manufacturing and country market towns, and several lying in secluded rural districts, intended for boarders only. At the same time I sent out to the private schools the Forms of Inquiry with which you furnished me, and obtained in course of time answers more or less complete from about 80 schoolmasters and 160 schoolmistresses. The information thus gained, although it conveyed no such idea of the merits of a school as can be gained in a personal visit, was yet of considerable value, for by its means general conclusions respecting the state of education—the subjects taught, for instance, the fees charged, the salaries paid to assistant teachers, could be arrived at with a sufficient degree of precision. Believing it desirable to ascertain as fully as possible not only the actual condition of schools, but also the opinions of the most intelligent persons in the county, and especially of teachers themselves, I printed and distributed in the most promising quarters three sets of papers containing questions on various educational topics. To these questions, and especially to those contained in the paper relating to the education of girls, many answers of much interest were received, which I have the honour now to lay before you. Extracts from some of them will be found printed in the appendix.

Besides using these formal methods of collecting information, I tried to carry out your instructions as far as possible by seeing not only the trustees of endowed schools (which was done in every or almost every case), but by conversing with persons of intelligence

* That is, endowed schools which either are or once were classical, and so appear to have been intended to give an education of a superior order.

† Schools which happened to be closed on the day of my visit.

or influence in the neighbourhood, with clergymen of all denominations, with employers of labour, with tradespeople, with working men who might be taken as fair exponents of the wishes and feelings of parents of their own rank in life. Lastly, I put myself in communication with Her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools for the district (for whose kindness I wish to express my thanks), visited in their company schools receiving Government aid, and endeavoured to ascertain by conversation with the certificated masters in those schools the position which they hold towards schools of a higher social grade.*

I cannot of course pretend to have by those means exhausted the sources of information which were open to me, nor to have escaped the danger of hasty generalization to which a stranger brought into contact with the phenomena of a new district is necessarily exposed. To know and feel this danger, however, is to be in some measure protected from it, and I can safely say, that having entered on the inquiry with no foregone conclusions, I have endeavoured in the pages that follow to represent to you impartially and with equal fulness the feelings, wishes, and arguments of every social class and every religious community with which I was brought in contact.

I saw many facts and heard of many more which it would have been desirable to lay before you as tending to substantiate or impugn the views advanced by my informants on one side or the other. But these facts often involved the mention of the names of living persons, and it seemed to me that it would not be consonant to your wishes that an inquiry of this kind, not compulsory and not strictly judicial, should be made the means of inflicting upon any one either pain or pecuniary injury. I have thought it best, therefore, to refer in general terms to many things with respect to which specific evidence is in my possession.

Order of the Report.

It remains to say one word respecting the arrangement of this Report. The most obvious course would have been to describe separately and fully every class of schools, pointing out the defects and suggesting the remedies in and for each. But inasmuch as such a plan would leave out of view those characteristics which are common to all classes of schools, and would fail to make clear their relation to each other, and to the social and economical condition of Lancashire (whereof they are the natural and necessary expression), it may be better, even at the risk of some repetition, to adopt a somewhat more complex scheme. I propose then to treat first of the management and organization of each class of schools, the endowed, the private adventure, and those which it is convenient to group as proprietary. After this I shall go on to speak of the instruction given in all the Lancashire schools generally, making some remarks on the methods employed, and the qualifications of the teachers themselves. Lastly, I shall endeavour, beginning, so

* In the pages which follow I have occasionally ventured to illustrate remarks on Lancashire schools by referring to facts observed in Shropshire, Worcestershire, Monmouthshire and Wales, the grammar schools in which districts I visited and examined when the inquiry in Lancashire had been completed.

to speak, from the other end, to show in what way the social state of Lancashire reacts upon the education of its people; what practically are the results of the existing machinery of schools and colleges, and what remedies can be applied to the defects and evils that now exist.

CHAPTER I.

The Endowed Schools.

Number and distribution of the endowed schools.

In the number and aggregate revenues of her educational charities, Lancashire holds a high place among the counties of England. Those of Middlesex and the West Riding of Yorkshire approach, but do not equal hers in wealth; those of the City of London exceed them only by a little. These foundations are scattered, as a glance at the map will show, pretty equally over the whole county, lying thickest in the southern and south-eastern parts and in the valleys of the Lune and Ribble, more scantily along the west coast, but nowhere absolutely wanting. Among them every class and social grade of school finds its representative, one only excepted, and that the highest—the grammar school, which has, like Rugby or Shrewsbury, developed into what is called a public school. Of the total number of schools mentioned and described by the original Charity Commissioners in that elaborate Report which was taken as the basis of the present Inquiry, seventy-nine, representing an annual gross revenue of 11,428*l.*, were described, in the Digest subsequently issued, as classical, either by foundation or repute, and it was these and these only which your instructions desired me to visit. I found before long that the distinction which the compilers of this Digest had drawn, although a useful and necessary one, was one to which there was nothing in reality to correspond. A considerable number of the schools termed by them classical, have not within the memory of man, and possibly have never at all, taught Latin; while in others which they call non-classical, it occasionally happens that boys are instructed in Latin, and even in Greek. The distinction, however, even if it be fictitious, is practically a convenient one, which I found it desirable to use and abide by. It would have been impossible to visit every one of 223 schools, but 79 one might hope to overtake; and the very fact that some of these had sunk from the position of grammar schools—if indeed they had ever occupied that position—into mere village schools, gave me a better view of the whole body and system of endowed schools from top to bottom than could otherwise have been attained. For by treating these which, though called classical, are really village schools of the lowest grade, as representatives of the great mass of non-classical endowed schools (and this there is every reason to believe they are) sufficient materials seemed to be at hand for forming an opinion upon the condition and working of educational charities of every kind.

The number of 79 schools described as classical in the Digest of the Charity Commission is now somewhat diminished, partly by the

extinction of schools here and there, but still more by the transformation of some of the smaller and poorer into national schools under Government inspection. These I was led to consider as not generally falling within my province, and therefore it was only in one or two cases that I visited them. Usually, however, I procured from the incumbent, or other competent inhabitant of the place, some account of the history of the school, and the circumstances which had led to the change in its constitution; inquiring also the opinion of Her Majesty's Inspector on its present condition.

The endowed schools of which I have now to speak may be roughly distributed into three classes—

Class A. Grammar schools in the great towns—such as Manchester, Preston, Burnley; giving in all but one instance (that of the Oldham school) a classical as well as commercial education.

Class B. Grammar schools in the small towns, and occasionally even in country places—smaller than the former, but for the most part enjoying an equally good income; and frequented by the sons of shopkeepers and farmers.

Class C. Grammar and other endowed schools in country places, usually with small revenues, teaching either a little or no Latin, and chiefly used by children of the labouring classes.

As each of these three classes of endowed schools differs greatly from the others, so in each class there are differences hardly less wide between school and school—differences in wealth, in constitution, in size, in efficiency, which make it almost impossible faithfully to describe the whole otherwise than by describing each individual. As this would be endless, and would after all leave no very definite impression, it seems better to be content with giving a more general and summary account of them—*qua* foundation schools—dwelling on those features which they have in common in virtue of their endowment, and only occasionally referring to single cases by way of illustration. This will be most easily done by grouping the facts ascertained under several heads, so as to treat successively of the revenues of these schools, the composition and working of their governing bodies, the nature of their foundation and the way in which its funds have been educationally applied, their buildings and apparatus, their educational organization, and their teachers. Of the instruction given in them, and of their general educational function in the county as compared with that of private schools, I propose to speak in a later part of this Report.

A. Financial Condition of the Endowed Schools.

Revenues.

The Table on p. 430 shows the gross annual income from all sources of the endowed schools of the county in 1820–1829* and in 1865 respectively.

Generally increasing.

From this Table it will be seen that the revenues of these schools are in most cases increasing, although seldom at a rapid rate. The most common cause of this improvement is the rise, gradual

* It was between these years that the original Charity Commissioners visited and reported on the Lancashire charities.

Class A. Lancashire. Grammar Schools in great Towns.

Schools.	Gross Income, 1820—1829. £	s.	d.	Gross Income, 1865. £	s.	d.
Blackburn	120	7	4	118	0	0
Bolton-le-Moors	485	10	6	409	0	0
Burnley	134	16	0	276	0	0
Bury	442	0	9	740	0	0
Lancaster	29	0	0	30	0	0
Manchester	4,408	9	1	2,994	0	0
Oldham	33	9	0	33	9	0
Preston	55	1	6	55	1	6
Rochdale	39	14	0	27	0	0
Warrington	551	18	0	556	0	0
Wigan	229	4	10	285	0	0
Total	6,529	11	0	5,523	10	6

Class B. Grammar Schools in small Towns.

Schools.	Gross Income, 1820—1829. £	s.	d.	Gross Income, 1865. £	s.	d.
Cartmel	116	4	3	127	0	0
Colne	15	0	0	20	0	0
Chorley	11	0	0	10	0	0
Farnworth	15	8	4	15	8	4
Hawkshead	146	18	5	254	0	0
Kirkham	595	9	0	617	0	0
Leigh	25	0	0	25	0	0
Middleton		—		37	0	0
Newchurch-in-Rossendale.	60	12	8	67	0	0
Ormskirk	138	15	0	114	0	0
Prescot	159	17	4	170	0	0
Widnes	56	16	0	56	0	0
Lea	90	12	6	88	0	0
Stand	30	10	0	36	0	0
Great Crosby	50	0	0	380	0	0
Ulverston	31	5	0	40	0	0
Warton	26	13	4	50	0	0
Clitheroe	452	8	8	347	0	0
Upholland	65	18	3	78	0	0
Total	2088	8	9	2531	8	4

Class C. Grammar Schools in Country Places.

Schools.	Gross Income, 1820—1829. £	s.	d.	Gross Income, 1865. £	s.	d.
Bispham-in-the-Fylde	70	0	0	113	0	0
Bretherton	112	5	8	75	0	0
Aughton	68	0	0	90	0	0
Broughton (Parish Kirkby Ireleth).	6	8	0	6	8	0
Goosnargh	65	0	0	62	0	0
Presall	13	6	8	13	6	8
Pilling, lower end	42	10	0	100	0	0
Abbeystead	41	0	0	193	0	0
Wray	34	14	4	47	0	0
Great Marton	91	0	0	129	0	0
Eccleston (Par. Prescot)	4	4	0	57	0	0
Broughton (Par. Preston)	128	12	0	123	0	0
Great Eccleston (Copp School).	60	6	6	45	0	0
Great Eccleston (Lane Head School).	5	0	0	5	0	0
Tarleton	29	6	0	35	0	0
Tunstall	26	9	6	31	0	0
Burtonwood	12	1	8		—	
Whalley	51	4	2	35	0	0
Ashton-in-Makerfield	46	1	0	43	0	0
Lowton	20	0	0	15	0	0
Blackrod	140	4	0	266	0	0
Rivington	308	9	8	355	0	0
Bolton-le-Sands	26	7	11	43	0	0
Bispham (Par. Croston)	161	18	0	137	0	0
Leyland	27	10	6	27	10	6
Penwortham	669	4	9	966	0	0
Winwick	34	0	0	34	0	0
Cockerham	15	0	0	12	10	0
Standish	114	4	4	92	0	0
Urswick	15	0	0			
Total	2439	8	8	3150	15	2

:ut almost universal, in the value of land. Where, as is frequently the case in the manufacturing and mining parts of the county, the school lands offer good building sites, or lie over workable seams of coal, hardly any limit can be assigned to the possible increase. Charitable estates, partly owing to the existence of the Charity Commission, which is feared even where it does not command, but partly also to a quickened interest in matters of education, seem to be much better managed now than they were some fifty years ago. Farms have been improved by a judicious outlay; leases are granted for shorter terms and with more care; covenants are more strictly enforced. How far this increase may be expected to continue, I could not ascertain with any degree of precision. But there seems reason to believe that in almost every case some, and in several cases a very considerable, improvement may still be looked for, supposing, of course, that the trustees bestow proper diligence on the management of the funds. It is not, however, likely that the average per cent. increase of the next twenty years will exceed that of the last twenty.

Cases of decrease.

The cases in which the accompanying Table shows a diminution may be traced to accidental and peculiar causes. The Manchester grammar school has been chiefly supported by a monopoly of grinding malt within the borough, the profits wherefrom have diminished with the establishment of mills outside the limit. In several other instances debts had been incurred in legal proceedings, the payment of which has crippled ever since the resources of the school.

Sources of school revenue.

Land.

The income of these charities arises in the great majority of cases from estates in land, the Court of Chancery generally requiring that accumulations of money, or sums raised by the sale of any estate shall be so reinvested. The trustees themselves appear to consider this much the best form an endowment can take, maintaining that its permanence and its tendency to rise along with every change in the value of money are advantages more than sufficient to compensate the expense and trouble of management. This expense, or in other words the difference between the gross and the net income, often bears a large proportion to the whole, especially when the school lands lie a long way from the school itself, and involve either the employment of a local agent, or occasional journeys by the trustees or their representative. In such cases it would seem desirable to effect a sale or exchange; and trustees frequently expressed to me a wish that they had some ready and inexpensive means of doing so.*

Stocks and fixed charges.

Besides landed property, many schools have sums of money in the public funds, and others receive fixed payments from the Duchy of Lancaster or from some corporate body. In these latter cases the sum actually paid is of course very far from representing the intentions of the donor. Thus, King Edward the Sixth, after the confiscation of the lands of the great Cistercian abbey at Whalley, appointed 13*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* to be paid to the grammar school there, which had originally been in the hands of the monks.

* They do not seem to know how much the Charity Commission can do for them.

The value of these lands has, of course, increased prodigiously; but 13*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* is still paid by the Duchy Office to the school. So Dean Nowell gave estates to Brasenose College, Oxford, desiring them to pay certain sums to the grammar school at Middleton; the income of those estates has now risen to a very large annual sum; but the school receives about 54*l.* Inhabitants, and especially the schoolmasters themselves, are wont to complain of these cases as practically unjust, and it is sometimes impossible not to sympathize with them; but they are generally aware that the present state of things is now too firmly established to be disputed at law.

Management of School property.

The management of estates and all kinds of school property is in the more important schools in the hands of the trustees or governors, who for the most part employ a solicitor to collect rents and keep accounts. In the smaller schools, however, especially where the income is simple in its character, as a rentcharge or dividends upon stock, financial matters are often left to the schoolmaster himself, who gives receipts and applies the money as he pleases, sometimes without rendering any account to the trustees. Where the funds are small and the possibility of misapplication slender, no great harm is done by this practice, and cases occur in which it has even been beneficial to the school property. One occurs to me in which the schoolmaster, a shrewd and active man, although very little of a scholar, took the school farm into his own hands, and by draining and otherwise improving it, raised it in the course of 30 years to nearly double its original value. Even here, however, while he made the farm better he made the school worse, and the practice is, on the whole, one which cannot be too strongly discountenanced. Experience shows that it puts the master under a constant temptation to sacrifice the ultimate advantage of the property to his own immediate interests. It leads him to postpone the most necessary repairs in the buildings and furniture of the school. It diverts his attention from his proper duties to others for which he is sometimes very ill fitted. And, lastly, it is an excuse to the trustees for their too frequent neglect of the school and all that concerns it. These dangers are generally admitted by trustees, and sometimes by the schoolmaster himself. Even, therefore, in cases where little or no mischief has yet been done, it would seem desirable to direct that for the future school property shall be managed and school revenues received by the trustees only.

Sometimes left to the schoolmaster.

Evils of such an arrangement.

Case of school fees.

With regard to the other source of school income, fees paid by the scholars, the case is somewhat different. The master who knows the boys and what they learn, is generally the fittest person to receive these, as he does at present, and it is only in large and important schools that the services of a regular clerk, secretary, or bursar are found to be really needed. Wherever there is work enough for such an official, his action seems to be advantageous, since he relieves the master of what is not only a burdensome but also a disagreeable duty, and puts him in a more independent position towards the boys and their parents.

Employment of paid agents.

Respecting the employment by the trustees of a paid agent, no definite rule can be laid down. Where the revenues are very

large, it is necessary; where they are small, and especially where they arise from stock or from the rent of a single farm, the salary of an agent is often a useless burden. Generally he is one of the leading solicitors of the place, too busy to give much attention to the school business, and possibly inclined to prefer to its interests those of some powerful client who may be a tenant of the school lands at too low a rent. The provision introduced into their new schemes by the Charity Commission, fixing the maximum salary to be given to such an agent, is admitted to be a wise and necessary one.

To the care, wisdom, and probity, with which the financial concerns of these charities are in general administered, it is pleasant to be able to bear favourable witness. In time past, and especially some 40 or 50 years ago, before the appointment of the first Charity Commissioners, there seems to have been much recklessness and sometimes gross malversation. Cases have been brought to my knowledge in which school lands have been appropriated by neighbouring proprietors, or sold to individual trustees or their influential friends, at a price far below their real value,* and the Reports of 1818-37 mention many others in which sums of money were left in the hands of or lent to persons—trustees or others—who retained them without acknowledgment, or became bankrupt, or disposed of them so that they could no longer be traced and recovered. If such things are done now-a-days, it must be rarely and secretly, for no case of absolute dishonesty has been brought to my knowledge or even hinted at by any censorious inhabitant. One cannot of course expect charitable funds to be managed with as much prudence and energy as private property. To use a distinction familiar to the jurisprudence of Rome, we must not look for *exactissima diligentia* nor even for that measure of care which the *diligens paterfamilias* bestows on his own affairs. It is enough if there be no *culpa lata*—neither gross folly nor remissness tantamount to fraud. In five cases out of six a fair and honest diligence is rendered and the fewness of the instances in which, after making inquiries in every quarter, I have heard complaints of the wastefulness or ill judgment of trustees in selling or letting lands under their true value, in contracting debts, or allowing a floating balance to remain uninvested, seem to prove that these errors cannot be frequent, and that here at any rate no very gross abuses remain to be exposed.†

Uprightness of the financial administration.

This can be stated only as an impression, and may be a false one. Corruptions may exist which I failed to discover. But having proceeded from Lancashire to Wales, and finding that a very short inquiry there disclosed instances of neglect, or some-

* In one instance this was done by obtaining an Act of Parliament for the purpose.

† More than once I have heard murmurs against the practice of letting trustees become tenants of the school lands; and it would no doubt be better if this were as far as possible avoided. An instance occurs to me in which trustees were proposing to sell some school lands to themselves in a manner which could not be called dishonest, but was certainly very ungenerous.

In one case, not in Lancashire, I was told that the trustees, being some of them portsmen, managed the lands with a view to the preservation of the game for their own pleasure.

thing worse than neglect, such as eight months in Lancashire did not bring to my knowledge, it was impossible not to feel even more confidence than before in the general integrity and public spirit of those who administer the Lancashire schools.

Other questions relating to finance will be more appropriately treated of in the reports upon individual schools. I pass therefore to a subject much more intricate and difficult—that of the general administration and government of endowed schools.

B. Administration.

Under this head it will be proper to speak of the Governing Bodies in the endowed schools of the county; their constitution and mode of appointment, their control the working of the school, and the spirit in which it is found to be exercised.

I.—Constitution of Governing Bodies.

Constitution of Governing Bodies.

In a little more than one half of the total number of schools visited, the governing body consists of a certain fixed number of trustees or governors, in whom is vested the property as well as the patronage and management of the school, and who enjoy also the right of nominating their successors, either directly or by recommending persons to be appointed by the Charity Commission or the Court of Chancery. These bodies often contain one or more *ex-officio* members; as, for instance, the rector or vicar of the parish, the mayor or bailiff of the town, the owner of a particular estate; but otherwise their constitution is simple, and all the members stand upon the same footing. Sometimes, however, a more complex system exists. The inhabitants, as represented ecclesiastically by the rector and churchwardens, or by the sidesmen (usually 24 in number) are in five cases the governing, or at least the appointing body. This is the case at Cartmel, Colne, Goosnargh (Threlfall's school), Ulverston, and Widnes.* Sometimes again, as at Broughton, near Preston, this plan is combined with the former; and at Prescot a body named schoolwardens are associated with the trustees of the general charities of the town.

In two important schools—those of Preston and Lancaster—the mayor and the burgesses, acting through the corporation, are governors, and indeed owners of the school. In two others—Great Crosby, near Liverpool, and Colborne's school at Goosnargh,† companies of the City of London occupy this place. At Kirkham the Drapers', though not practically the governing body, have certain functions in reference to the school. At Middleton a college—Brasenose, Oxford, manages the school and pays the endowment. In several cases there are really no trustees at all, although there are persons legally or by custom entitled to appoint the master. Such are Rochdale, Chorley, Whalley, and Winwick. And in three well-known schools—those of Manchester, Warrington, and Rivington—the appointment of head-master belongs not to the trustees,

* At Widnes, however, the vestry act indirectly by electing trustees.

† This school and Threlfall's have for many years been virtually united.

but to extraneous persons: to the President of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, in the first case; to Lord Lilford in the second; to the Master and Seniors of St. John's College, Cambridge, in the third.

It is not possible to institute a comparison of these various systems as regards their practical success. The field is too small to furnish materials for a trustworthy induction, and the disturbing elements are so many that one may doubt whether the result of such induction would be to establish the superiority of any one form of constitution. Municipal corporations and their dealings are spoken ill of in most parts of the county; but so far as I could judge, those of Preston and Lancaster have usually behaved towards their respective grammar schools with judgment and generosity. The parish, on the other hand, does not seem well fitted to manage its school by its existing organization, for the sidesmen are an unwieldy body, while the rector and his two churchwardens remind one of Napoleon as First Consul, with Cambacères and Lebrun for second and third. The schools without any trustees at all, although by no means the worst, yet seem to suffer from the want of some extraneous supporting and controlling authority.* It would no doubt be desirable to give them, so far as it can be done with a due regard to vested interests, a governing body such as other schools possess; and I gather from the existing masters that they would be more likely to welcome than to oppose such a change. The same holds true of schools managed by governors at a distance, such as companies or colleges. The former have probably neither local knowledge, nor any qualifications enabling them to direct an educational institution. The latter might seem fitter; but as a matter of fact they appear to have cared very little for any school from the management or patronage of which they had nothing to gain for themselves. If they subscribe for repairs once in twenty years, or give the master 10*l.* more salary than they are legally bound to do, they hold their obligations to be more than discharged. In the West of England and Wales I heard the same charges brought against the conduct, in time past, of cathedral bodies; in Lancashire there is none such having any jurisdiction over a school.

Comparison of the various existing systems.

Reverting to the normal arrangement, that of a board of self-appointed and self-continuing trustees, the defects which are discernible in such a system may be classed under three causes—undue restrictions, omissions, and a vicious mode of appointment.

Restrictions.

These restrictions are in most cases imposed either by the original foundation, by some subsequent decree or order of the Court of Chancery, or by a private Act of Parliament, so that no lower authority avails to change them. Less often they are in the nature of byelaws imposed by the governors themselves, or resting merely on custom, and in such cases there need be no difficulty in repealing or altering.

Restrictions on the eligibility of persons as trustees.

* This is especially true of Whalley, Chorley, and Winwick.

(1.) Restriction of place.

(1.) First, then, there is the restriction of place. It is a very common provision that a trustee shall be a substantial inhabitant or holder of land of a certain value within the parish or town where the school is situate. This was a wise rule two or three hundred years ago, when roads were bad (not indeed that they are good in Lancashire now), when robbers abounded, and when there was little motive to travel at all. A trustee twenty miles off was then of as little use as a trustee over the border. Things are very different now. Communication is easy everywhere, and nowhere so easy as in Lancashire, intersected in all directions by railways on which many passenger trains run daily. The old restriction, therefore, is now found to defeat itself, for while it permits a landowner who spends half the year in London, and the rest on the Continent or among the grouse, to be a trustee, it excludes a resident squire or clergyman or manufacturer in the next parish, some 10 or 15 minutes off by rail; and as it is often found hard, even in large towns, to get residents with leisure enough, zeal enough, and education enough to make them good trustees, the prohibition to seek a fit man in a larger area is often found vexatious. In several quarters I found people complaining of this; and if the office of a school trustee were considered—as it ought to be—an office of some responsibility as well as honour, they would no doubt complain much more. A relaxation of the rule would hardly be liable to abuse, for there is always a natural tendency in the existing boards of trustees to choose their neighbours in preference to people at a distance.

Its ill effects.

(2.) Of number.

(2.) Further, there are generally fixed rules prescribing a certain number of trustees. The number varies greatly from school to to school. It rises as high as fifty in Blackburn; it sinks as low as six in Rivington.

Views entertained on this topic.

The advantages both of the greater and of the lesser number are sufficiently plain. Where there are many there is less likely to be corruption; there is a greater accessibility to public opinion, and a better chance of having all sorts of interests, feelings, and parties fairly represented. On the other hand, a small board is more efficient and practical, meets at shorter notice, and cares more about its functions. What precise number combines these opposite advantages it might be hard to determine, but it is generally agreed that 50, perhaps even 20, governors must form an unwieldy and cumbersome body. What is everybody's business becomes nobody's; the sense of responsibility upon each is so small that it practically disappears. It is found very hard to get men to attend meetings, and when they do come once in a way, knowing little of the actual state of things, they are at the mercy of the two or three active people who are pretty sure to be found in such a body, and vote as they are bid by them without recking of the result. The power which each individually has over the school is too slight to give him much interest in it or a feeling for it; very often he seems to have altogether forgotten its existence. Although no arguments equally grave can be urged against a number so small as five or six, I found people disposed to believe that ten or twelve are as likely to administer the school well, and more likely to give satisfaction to the public. Where there are very few the school falls more

easily into the hands of a family or a political clique. More trouble must be taken to get a working quorum on each occasion, and so good a selection of able and vigorous men cannot be made. It is well to let a governing body be renewed from time to time by the introduction of a new man with a little of that zeal and activity which new men bring with them; but in a small body vacancies must necessarily be rare.

(3.) Of creed.

(3.) The last restriction that need be mentioned here is that of religious creed. In five schools out of six the trustees are all of them members of the Church of England, and in almost every one of these, no others are considered admissible. The cases are very few in which this restriction is prescribed by the original foundation, even if that foundation is of later date than A.D. 1662, or than the Toleration Act; rather more frequently it dates from some subsequent bye-law or Chancery scheme; but in the majority of cases it rests merely upon custom, a custom which the trustees hardly knew whether they are or are not competent to break through. Being in doubt, they observe it. "The school," they say, "has always been considered a church school, and no one remembers a dissenter being trustee. Four or five years ago when we had a vacancy, there was some talk of electing Mr. X, but finding that he was a dissenter, we did not think ourselves justified in departing from the established practice, and so we took Mr. Y instead." These words, or words to this effect, I have more than once heard from existing trustees.

With the general grounds, political, social, or religious, on which the exclusion of Nonconformists is either defended or attacked, I have nothing to do here. It is necessary, however, to say a word or two upon its actual present results, so far as I have been able to ascertain them.

Practical working of this restriction.

In country places the question is one of comparatively little moment; school trustees are mostly landowners, and landowners almost all belong to the Church of England,* but in towns, especially in the manufacturing towns, it is quite otherwise. There Nonconformists are numerous, and are sometimes among the most wealthy and influential people. Being moreover especially powerful among the trading classes who live in the towns and use the schools (whereas the magnates have mostly gone into the country, perhaps miles off, whence they send their sons to boarding schools), no persons are more closely connected with the grammar school, or more directly interested in its welfare. Debarred as they are from all share in its management, they come to regard it with indifference, or even with hostility. Frequently they prefer to send their children to inferior private schools, kept by a member of their own or some other dissenting congregation. When asked to subscribe for rebuilding or improving the school, they refuse—at least I was told they would refuse—to contribute, alleging their own exclusion from the trusteeship.

As a set-off to these evils, of which the schoolmasters complain more than the Dissenters themselves, it is said that the school could

* There are, it is true, in Lancashire several Roman Catholic landowners of influence, some of whom, as I was told, complain of being excluded.

not enjoy, under the government of persons not all of one creed, that peace and stability which it now enjoys. How far this is true it must be hard for an inhabitant to determine, much more then for a stranger. That the danger of quarrels and tumults is exaggerated, if not wholly chimerical, seems to be proved by the fact that those schools in which members of the Church of England and Nonconformists sit together at the board of management, are as peaceful and prosperous as their neighbours.* And in Preston and Lancaster, where the corporation necessarily includes persons of all shades of opinion, there does not appear to have arisen any religious or political dispute affecting the management of the grammar school.

Feelings of the trustees themselves.

Wherever I found the restriction existing, I endeavoured to ascertain the feelings of the existing trustees respecting it. In several cases they expressed their regret at having lost, because they were Dissenters, persons who would have been useful trustees Two instances in particular may be worth mentioning. In one the mayor of the town had been during his term of office an *ex-officio* trustee, and had done so much that it was desired to retain his services, but found impossible owing to a rule excluding Dissenters. In another several trustees seem to have proposed to co-opt the member of Parliament for the town, a man universally respected, but the majority did not wish to depart from their practice (there was no positive rule), and rejected him. Frequently trustees told me they saw no objection to the removal of the restriction, since things went on smoothly in the town between the different religious bodies. On the other hand, objections were sometimes strongly expressed. Clergymen of the Church of England more than once declared to me they would quit the trust if Dissenters were placed upon it. And in one case a trustee—not a clergyman—declared that the whole object and purpose of the school, the very end which its existence served, was this exclusion, or, as he expressed it, "to keep down those rascally Dissenters."

On the whole, however, the question is one which does not seem to excite much warmth of feeling on either side. As there is little or nothing in the management of the school about which a party fight can be got up, party spirit is usually found to seek some more congenial field for its operations. Such at least was the account which I received alike from Church of England people and from Nonconformists.

Omissions.

Omissions of persons suitable as *ex-officio* trustees.

Under this term I mean to denote a constitution of the trust which leaves out certain official persons whom it would be desirable to have always *ex officio* members. Such, in towns, is the mayor for the time being, as representing the municipality; in country places, the incumbent of the parish, as interested in the school, and very often the only resident of sufficient education to understand school affairs at all. Great inconvenience has been known

* Such schools are Manchester, Rivington, and Warton, and such, until the recent death of a Roman Catholic trustee, was the school at Eccleston in the parish of Prescot.

to arise from this cause. Whether the principle of *ex-officio* trusteeship cannot be carried even further is a question to be again recurred to. I refer to these omissions here because they are almost accidental, arising very often from some oversight in the words of the original foundation or scheme, and aggravated by the defects to be spoken of under the next head.

Mode of Appointment.

Appointment.

Where governors are incorporated.

Where not a Corporation.

Usual method of co-optation.

Where the governors of a school are a perpetual self-renewing body, incorporated by charter or Act of Parliament, the method of filling up vacancies is simple and easy. When one or more places are vacant, a meeting is held, a vote taken, and the persons selected are legally appointed by the results of the vote entered on the minutes. But more frequently trustees are not a corporation, and the process is then generally, though not invariably, different. It is on this wise. The foundation deed, or some later rule, after fixing a definite number of trustees, usually provides that this number shall be renewed when it has sunk, let us say, to two or three. Then, and not sooner, a meeting of surviving trustees is held; names of eligible persons are submitted; some of these are selected; and a deed is prepared by which the surviving trustees convey the school estates to these new trustees in conjunction with themselves as joint tenants, to the existing uses and trusts. This deed is then sealed and signed, the freehold is transferred, and the appointment is complete.

Its inconveniences.

Clumsiness.

To this process there are three objections:

1. It is cumbrous. All that follows the vote of the existing trustees is purely formal, and yet conveys no greater security than a properly attested entry in the minute-book of the trustmight be made to furnish. It is, from its very elaborateness, more exposed to error or unintentional informality. It increases the number of documents relating to the school, for the custody and preservation of which it is often difficult to provide.

Cost.

2. It is expensive. The parchment, the writing out, the requisite stamps, bring its cost up to something like 5*l.* or 6*l.*, or even more. Hence, when the school is poor, there is a tendency to postpone the choosing of new trustees, in order to avoid this disbursement, or, if they are appointed, to neglect the immediate drawing of the deed, a practice greatly to be deprecated.

Operation in diminishing effective strength of the body.

3. It weakens unduly the governing body of the school. Trustees exist for two objects; and for the first of these, the security of the freehold vested in certain joint tenants, this scheme of renewal from the minimum number does sufficiently provide. The other object, that of enabling them to give their aid to the school in the discharge of its educational functions, it neglects altogether. Suppose fifteen trustees appointed in A.D. 1840, the number not to be filled up till they have diminished to three. A few—some three or four—are youngish men (from 30 to 40), the rest middle-aged or elderly. Before 1866 they have been reduced to seven or eight, and these probably elderly men, infirm in health, and so long accustomed to the old state of things in the school that they do not care to make even a plainly beneficial change. It may be

A.D. 1875 before the number will fall to three, and then a new swarm will come in, knowing, it may happen, very little of the management of the school in former times, and thus wanting at least one of the qualifications which enable men to reform wisely. This is not an extreme case. There is a school in Lancashire now, Burtonwood, near Warrington, the full number of whose trustees is fifteen. There are three surviving; two are paralytic and one imbecile. Even when there is no express prohibition to renew the Board before it has fallen to its minimum, the trouble and expense of making out a new conveyance, and sometimes, though happily rarely, an exclusive spirit on the part of the existing trustees themselves, lead them to postpone till the latest possible moment the restoration of their body to its effective strength. It sometimes happens, moreover, that trustees who have left the neighbourhood of the school, and gone to reside in some other part of England, are unable to resign their place on the Board; and thus, while useless themselves, keep out others who might be useful. The remedy is a very obvious one, which the Charity Commissioners have begun to apply in their new schemes. They vest the freehold in an official trustee, and make the local trustees managers, enabling them to appoint their successors by a mere vote, so that they may do so from time to time as a vacancy occurs.

Resignation impossible.

General Character of Governing Bodies.

General character of governing bodies.

Omitting some other points too trifling and too exceptional to deserve mention in a general review, these are the specific defects which strike one in the existing constitution of the endowed school trusts in Lancashire. There are others, however, of a somewhat different character, with regard to which a word must not be spared. The characteristic advantage of the system of endowed schools which so happily exists in England, is its publicity. It gives to them a dignity, a tone to their scholars, a social status to their masters, which private schools cannot, as a rule, hope to reach. While it makes the school and its teachers more independent of parents, it makes them also more amenable to public opinion; it requires them to adapt themselves to the real needs of the locality; it gives every citizen a right, a right which our law has fully recognised, to call attention to their state, and to require a scrutiny by competent authority of their revenues or their educational services. In France and Germany these objects are sought by placing the schools under the direct control of the State. With us they are pursued in a manner more conformable to the genius of English institutions, by committing the administration to local bodies, who are practically considered as representatives of the local community, and as such responsible to it for the discharge of their duties, while yet considerable latitude is allowed them in details. The success of such a system must evidently depend upon the degree in which this idea—the idea of trusteeship as a delegated authority, which is to be exercised for the good of and in accordance with, the wishes of the people—is recognized and acted upon. A trustee is surely

Function of trustees towards a locality.

bound in honour, not only to do his best for the school funds and the school teaching, but also to endeavour to interest the inhabitants in the welfare of their school, to make no unnecessary secret of its management, to admit the most deserving of his fellow townsmen, whether or not they are his personal friends, to a share in the government, and in this way to let the Board of Trustees he as nearly as possible a fair and equal representation of the probity, intelligence, and public spirit of the neighbourhood. In other words, the existing oligarchical system can be defended and justified only on the hypothesis that it attains all the benefits of a democratic one without its accompanying evils.

Tendency to become narrow, jealous, and cliqueish.

Trustees, however, although they do not repudiate this view when it is proposed to them, sometimes forget it in practice, and look upon their office as a private and personal affair, carrying with it some little honour and power which they are entitled to use as they think fit, so long as they turn it to no sordid end. They talk of "our school," as if it were their own property, and treat with indifference or hauteur any claim on the part of the inhabitants to express a wish regarding it. They even begin to fancy it the hereditary possession of their family or their connexion; and nephews, brothers-in-law, or friends are placed, when occasion offers, upon the trust, to the possible exclusion of men more earnest and more competent. This tendency takes in one place a mild and inoffensive, in another a positively noxious form. Not sufficiently realizing the fact that their function is to represent the inhabitants, trustees are often negligent in making appointments, and choose simply the people who first occur to them, and whom they are in the habit of meeting. This is the mild aspect of the evil. Sometimes they consciously strive to keep the school in the hands of their own political party or family connexion—to throw it in fact into the hands of a clique —and manage it just as on a larger scale municipal corporations were managed before the Municipal Reform Act. Such aggravated cases are rare; there can hardly be more than two or three such in the county at this moment. But the feeling which leads to them is wide-spread, and affects the minds of many trustees whose practical good sense will not let them act on it in any offensive way. And there is one form which it takes in Lancashire which, natural as it may be, is nevertheless peculiarly unfortunate. Some thirty or forty years ago the only people of sufficient social position to make them thought of as trustees of the grammar schools were the gentry of the surrounding country. Now the petty places in which these schools lay have grown into great and prosperous towns, and have produced many men whose wealth has been gained by trade or manufactures, but whose energy and intelligence and influence among their fellows would make them suitable trustees. In a few instances such men have been frankly admitted; but in others the landed gentry retain their exclusive hold on the school, and threaten, if required to admit a new man among them, to withdraw altogether from the trust. It would certainly be a misfortune if they should do so;

and it is hard to see why they should not receive to sit beside them on a school board, those who sit beside them already at Quarter Sessions and on Cattle Plague Committees. If the signs of the times are to be resisted, some stronger position might at any rate be selected for defence.

This evil of narrowness and cliqueishness in governing bodies is, however, little more common among landowners than it is in towns—especially in country towns where solicitors, doctors, and bankers hold themselves superior to the rest of the inhabitants. And thus, although many complaints are made respecting it in Lancashire, cases palpably grosser are to be found in Shropshire and Wales.

Remedies suggested.

Those who complained were not always ready with a remedy. Sometimes they suggested an increase in the number of trustees where there are at present fewer than eight: or they proposed to

Enlarged size.

add several *ex-officio* members. In municipal boroughs, for instance, it is held desirable to give an *ex-officio* seat to the mayor for the time being, and to one other representative of the town council—the senior alderman, or, still better, a person chosen by the town council from itself or from the people at large. Some of the malcontents, on the other hand, would have the town directly elect

Feelings of the townspeople.

persons to sit on the school board.* There is, it was generally agreed, a wish in the towns themselves to see some measure adopted which may give a more distinctly public character to the school, and induce the citizens to feel a real practical interest

Instance of a great Lancashire town.

in all that belongs to it. Of this I met with one remarkable case. The mayor and one of the leading aldermen of an important borough spoke in the strongest terms of the contempt wherewith the town and its wishes had been treated by the few magnates who composed the board of trustees. Sometimes they had held no meeting for three or four years together. They had taken no steps to provide a proper building, the existing one being confessedly disgraceful, and had even discouraged the repeated efforts of one of their number. They had allowed part of the school lands to lie at quite too low a rent. They had permitted their solicitor to entangle them in some needless Chancery proceedings, and had thereby incurred a heavy debt. They had always scouted the notion of admitting the townspeople to any knowledge of their doings. How far this picture was overcharged I could not be certain; but it showed sufficiently the existence of discontent and suspicion which an open and vigorous administration would have removed; and no demand appeared more legitimate than that the town, a place of great and growing wealth, should have some representative to protect its interests, and should be in a position to bring its public opinion to bear on the otherwise irresponsible governors. The value of such publicity may be seen from the cases already mentioned of Lancaster and Preston, where the school is the property of the town and administered by the council. Therefore complaints can be at once redressed or refuted. Jobs

* It has also been suggested that a certain number of county and borough magistrates should be *ex-officio* trustees.

cannot easily be perpetrated under the jealous eye of the newspapers—not those of the town only, but also those of Manchester and Liverpool; and every inhabitant, considering the school in a sense his own, has a pride in it and a motive to advance its welfare. It may safely be said that no public board can be so bad as some private ones have proved themselves to be; and there seemed to me to be sufficient grounds for believing it desirable to have among the trustees of every town school a strong representative element.

II.—Powers of the Governing Bodies.

Powers of trustees.

The powers of trustees or governors, of which I have now to speak, may be distributed under four heads:—

(1.) Over school revenues and funds.
(2.) Over the educational application of the endowment.
(3.) Over the appointment and dismissal of masters.
(4.) Over matters of instruction and discipline.

(1.) *Financial Control.*

Management of school property.

This has been spoken of already in describing the economical state of the endowed schools (p. 429, *seq.*). In most cases the trustees undertake the entire management of the school property themselves, or by their agent: they receive the rents, make allowances either for repairs or improvements, place money in or draw it from the bank, and pay over to the masters their stated salary. In all, or almost all, cases it seems desirable that these duties should be performed by them only and not by the schoolmaster. They are controlled, however, by the legal rules which govern the administration of trust estates generally, and I heard from them complaints of the narrow limits within which their discretion is thus restrained, and wishes for a change which should enable them to deal more readily with the property for the purpose of increasing its value.

(2.) *Control over the Disposition of the Endowment.*

Power to dispose of the endowment.

Besides what may be called the external management of the school finances, trustees have frequently the right to settle the internal distribution of the funds to divers purposes or persons. Subject to the provisions, more or less specific, of the foundation or scheme, they allot a certain portion of the endowment to each master, impose certain scales of fees, decide on the application of the money so raised, and admit a certain number of children to be taught gratis, or at reduced rates. It would be tedious to describe in detail the extent to which these powers are possessed and exercised in each particular case. There is but one question of general interest which arises upon this part of the subject—whether it is desirable to have all these matters arranged on a permanent basis by a scheme, or rather to leave the trustees at liberty to make such regulations as they may from time to time deem fit. One of these powers, that of giving or withholding of a free education to the whole school, they do not desire, since to exercise it is

to trespass on the peculiar rights of a founder, or of the State as his representative; but they often find it inconvenient to be hampered by minor rules.

Objections to rigidly restricting the discretion of trustees.

If a Chancery scheme, for instance, prescribes a certain rate of fees, such rate must of necessity be a minimum at the time when it is imposed, and will before long become unduly low. There is no more common source of mischief in schools than too small fees —too small, that is, to make it possible to get a good man for the place. It is a pity to stereotype this evil by making it part of the permanent constitution of the school; and the same may be said of the regulations respecting the age of the boys to be admitted, the subjects to be taught, and so forth, on all which matters it is needful from time to time to reconsider the rules in force, and introduce such changes as may be required by the increasing revenue of the school or the altered circumstances of the neighbourhood. These things, on the other hand, it is thought unwise to leave to the unaided judgment of trustees, who are more often, as they confess themselves, deterred by timidity from change, than allured to it by the pleasure of exercising their powers. What is desired, therefore, is an authority not judicial, rigidly formal, and expensive, like the Court of Chancery, but cheap, accessible and familiar: such an authority in fact, said my informants, as the Charity Commission would be, supposing it to have powers somewhat more extended, and a more distinctly educational mission to advise and correct. Subject to the approval of such a body, trustees wish for greater freedom to dispose of the endowment than existing schemes grant them.

(3.) *The Appointment and Dismissal of Masters.*

Right of appointing and dismissing masters. Sometimes not vested in trustees.

This most important of all the functions of a governing board is, in the case of three schools, exercised by an external authority. At Warrington, Lord Lilford is patron as heir of the founder; at Manchester, the President of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, and at Rivington, the Master and Seniors of St. John's, Cambridge; though in each of these cases there is a regular body of self-renewing trustees. Judging from the past history of these schools, this anomaly has caused little or no injury; more than once there is reason to believe it to have been the means of procuring better men than could otherwise have been obtained. At the same time it is not convenient that a master, while nominally under the control of his trustees, should be really responsible in the last resort not to them, but to a patron who has an interest in his nominee, but none in the school. It might be found very difficult, in such a state of things, to procure the retirement of an incompetent master;* difficult even (unless by giving express authority to the trustees) to check him in any unwarranted course of action. In all other cases than these three, the governing body of the

* In the case of Warrington, the trustees were empowered by the original rules of the school to proceed aginst the master before the bishop. This is tantamount to declaring the master irremoveable.

school exercise also the right of nominating the head-master. In one only, that of Clitheroe, do they require the approval of the bishop of the diocese (Manchester). The appointment is usually made by inserting an advertisement in the public papers, and then, after inspecting the testimonials of the candidates, requesting some two or three of the most eligible to attend for a personal interview. Sometimes, though rarely, an examination is held by some clergyman or other person commissioned thereto by the trustees. In Clitheroe, this has been done on one occasion by the bishop. In former times a master once appointed was virtually irremoveable, since it was extremely hard to establish by legal proof any moral delinquency against him, while mere laziness or incompetence, so long as he kept the school open, was not held sufficient to justify his ejection. The evil is now less common, but it is by no means extinct. In one remarkable case of which I heard a good deal, a master stoutly refused to teach anything but classics, and by a harsh discipline, springing either from his passionate temper or from a deep-laid purpose, reduced the school till only his two sons were left in it. Meanwhile he continued to draw the endowment and reside in the house attached to the school. The trustees, after trying persuasion in vain, took legal steps to remove him. He was, however, within the letter of his duties, and after a succession of fruitless efforts they were forced to buy him off with 750*l*. This happened in Lancashire only a few years ago. Nor is it at all a singular case; I could name three or four other schools in which, quite recently, the same difficulty has been experienced in getting rid of an incompetent or stiff-necked master. Warned by such instances, trustees sometimes make the appointment expressly during their pleasure, and terminable by three months' notice on either side; and as their legal right to do this is often very doubtful, they occasionally try to bolster it up by exacting from the newly-appointed a bond conditioned with a penalty, to resign at their formal requisition. Neither is this, however, a satisfactory way out of the difficulty.

Plan followed in making elections.

Difficulty of removing objectionable masters.

There is no point whereon I received more clear and unanimous testimony, than as to the desirability of depriving schoolmasters of any freehold in or permanent title to their office. Nor were any persons more forward to urge this upon me than schoolmasters themselves, the best of whom felt that it was not a boon, but an injury, to be deprived of the unseen check and stimulus which a comparatively unassured position imposes. "If we do our duty," they argued, "we have no fear of being dismissed; if we don't, we ought to be. And the knowledge that we may be is all the more likely to keep us straight. If a lawyer's success depends on his exertions, if a bank manager or a commercial traveller is dismissed by his employers when his want of judgment entangles them with bad debts, why should a schoolmaster alone be suffered with impunity to do his work in any way or no way?" The analogy is of course not perfect, for trustees are by no means as capable of judging how a schoolmaster teaches as employers are of judging how their salaried official does their business. It would be a

Testimony against making masters irremoveable.

misfortune to put educated men, discharging a duty so delicate and responsible as that of a schoolmaster, at the mercy of ignorance or prejudice. But experience shows that trustees err far more often from indulgence than from severity. They are more likely to keep on an incompetent man whom they have grown accustomed to, and whom it would seem harsh to deprive of his livelihood, than they are to send away anybody who is doing his work to good purpose.

Plans suggested.

Nevertheless, many persons hold that to prevent any capricious exercise of power, the master should be allowed an appeal from the trustees to some other authority; or that a majority of three-fifths or two-thirds of the trustees should be required to make any vote of dismissal valid. To the latter of these expedients there can be no objection. Against the former, it is urged that to give a right of appeal is virtually to make the matter a lawsuit, and thereby open a door for all sorts of expenses and technicalities of proceeding which would in effect prevent the trustees from exerting their power of dismissal. Possibly a solution may be found in some system of inspection or in the extension of powers at present vested in the body which superintends charities. For it is not enough to enlarge the power of dismissal; one must often rouse trustees to use it, by calling their attention to a state of things that proves the master's incompetence or neglect.

Right to appoint the usher in whom vested.

In those schools where a second master or usher, as he is technically called, is a part of the old foundation, his appointment is vested in the governing body without the concurrence of the head-master. This is the case in most of the older schools. It is also the case in several schools where the second master has been subsequently introduced. In both these classes, however, the practice has grown up of virtually committing the appointment of the second to the head-master, who examines the candidates, selects, and has his selection confirmed, almost as a matter of course, by the trustees.

Where, as in such large schools as those of Manchester, Lancaster, Warrington, Preston, and Bury, one or more additional masters form part of the school staff, the appointment of these is generally left to the head-master. Sometimes he is allowed, as at Lancaster, to make his own bargain with them. Sometimes, as at Warrington, they receive fixed salaries, with or without a share in the fees.

(4.) *Control of Instruction and Discipline.*

Interference of trustees in general conduct of the school.

On being asked to what extent they were empowered to interfere with the internal concerns of a school, trustees usually replied that they really did not know. To the further question as to whether they did so interfere, they answered almost invariably in the negative. As has been said above, they commonly fix the scale of fees; they appoint—usually at the suggestion of the head-master—examiners (if there are any) and receive their report; they in some cases select certain boys to receive education gratis, or at a cheaper rate; and they often promulgate a code of byelaws regulating the discipline of

the school. Beyond these, which are after all only occasional acts of authority, they seldom go, partly from indifference, partly because they feel that no good workman likes to be watched and meddled with while at work. Doubtless, the better any head-master is, the greater the flexibility and organizing power of his mind, the less is it possible for him to give an account of his proceedings to others and be bound by petty rules which he has not himself laid down. There is therefore no reason to regret that governing bodies so seldom consider the details of every day school work to fall within their province. I can remember only one school in which the master complained to me of interference with these things by trustees;* and there I had reason to believe that there was little ground for his complaint.

Expulsion of offending boys.

There is one point of discipline, however, which they do sometimes take cognizance of, the expulsion of offenders. Occasionally they require the master to report to them every instance, reserving, although seldom or never exerting, the right to review and annul his decision. Sometimes this is claimed as a consequence of the right (where such right exists) of nominating certain free boys, since the expulsion of a free boy is indirectly an injury to the trustee who sent him in. Sometimes it is regarded as merely a part of the general supreme jurisdiction which, since it must reside somewhere, is held to reside in the governors; and parents are allowed to complain of any alleged harshness or misconduct on the part of the master. These protests and appeals are uncommon, even where they are permitted, being usually discouraged by the trustees, who consider themselves bound to support, except in extreme cases, the authority of the head-master. While they continue in this mind, it is probably advisable to let the right of appeal subsist, since its mere existence affords a sort of vent and relief to discontented spirits, and excludes the possibility of any very gross injustice on the part of an head-master. And the head-master himself often finds it desirable to have another authority joined with him in the exercise of what must sometimes be an invidious function.

III.—Actual Working and Conduct of the Governing Bodies.

Manner in which bodies actually discharge their functions aforesaid.

It is a much easier task to enumerate the powers which trustees legally enjoy, than to describe the manner in which they exercise them. For there are so many shades of difference between school and school that no general proposition can be laid down which will not prove unjust in some instances. The difficulty, moreover, of arriving at the truth is very great when the inquirer has only a short time at his disposal, and can collect evidence from but few, and those often interested witnesses. Such evidence as I was able to collect did appear to warrant the conclusion that

* One of the trustees, he said, used to come in and warn the boys not to neglect modern things for ancient. "It is better to be able to point out London on the map than Jerusalem."

governing bodies, while they are rarely foolish, and still more rarely dishonest in the management of their trust, are yet upon the whole somewhat indolent and careless. Their faults are negative. They seldom behave with harshness or injustice towards masters or parents. Still less often, if ever, are they guilty of meanness or corruption. But they lack that active virtue, that public spirit, that zeal to see education extended and improved, that hearty earnestness to use all the resources their position gives them for the benefit of the community they live in, which belong to the highest type of a good citizen. It is true that we do not expect to see this ideal, any more than other ideals, frequently realized. But after making every allowance, the shortcoming is greater than it ought to be or need be. Since many of these trustees are among the ablest and wisest men in the county, this shortcoming, if it is permissible to use such a term, is evidently one which belongs not to the men but to the position. It seems to arise from two causes—an insufficient appreciation of the importance of the grammar school and of their function towards it, and an absence of all external authority which could stimulate, aid, and advise them.

Most frequent defect is negligence and want of interest.

Causes thereof.

The truth seems to be that trustees are seldom awake either to the importance of a good education or the possibility of actually giving one. Educated themselves in an old-fashioned and sometimes imperfect way, inclined from their own pursuits to value knowledge chiefly for its practical utility in enabling a boy to get a situation, they fail to see how much in the way of permanent mental improvement five years of a thoroughly good school may effect. Furthermore, they don't quite know what a good school is. Judging from their recollection, they are satisfied if the scholars are not flagrantly ignorant nor ill-behaved. They take it for granted that learning must always be distasteful; a battle between master and boy, in which the resisting party is usually victorious. Thus setting up too low a standard, they are well pleased if it is attained, and encourage the teacher to think he has done enough. It has frequently happened to me when after examining a school I have gone to talk it over with the trustees, to be asked by them how I found the school. On stating, as it was often necessary to do, that though not deserving absolute condemnation, it was doing far less than it ought to do and might do, they were evidently surprised and not over well pleased. It had never occurred to them that energy, interest, intelligence, ought to be the normal state of a school; that its duty was unperformed, unless boys came from it having not only learnt something about a subject, but learnt that something thoroughly—unless a fair proportion of them had been made fit to use and eager to extend their knowledge. Nor was this state of mind unnatural. They had no scale of comparison by which to judge their school; and knowing how small a part the best teacher can do of what he would like to do, it was not easy for them to be sure that that point had not been reached already. They needed, in short, and often declared that they felt themselves to need, an external test and proof of what was going forward under their eyes.

Want of means of judging these performances and quality of the school.

This is more particularly the case in the smaller country schools, where neither the size of the endowment nor the social position of the children who attend is likely to draw public notice to the place. The inconceivable badness of many of these schools (to be afterwards described) must often be charged on the trustees, who, like the parents, think that a school is a place not so much for teaching as for sending children to be out of the way. They have no idea of what a well-ordered Government school is like, and bear with teachers who could not survive one inspector's report. There were cases in which trustees had to be reminded of the 'free school,' as they call it, and could not tell me where it lay. If it had been a National school they might have taken some little interest, since they would have had to subscribe for its support. But a charity school may be left to its fate. Especially in small rural schools.

There are, however, certain signs of prosperity in a school which cannot be mistaken—a good attendance, general alertness, an appearance of steady and resolute work. But the trustees have often no opportunity of seeing whether or not these signs are present. In country districts they are mostly country gentlemen, placed on the trust, as their fathers were before them, because they are the magnates of the neighbourhood. They live in old manor houses some way from the school, and have no motive to come near it, except when the annual meeting is held. Even then, some are sure to be away in London or elsewhere, so that it is well if a quorum is got together at all. Even for the appointment of a master it is hard to gather them, and this most important of all their functions is practically left to be settled by one or two active residents. Among these the clergyman of the parish is usually chief —often, indeed, he is the only man who cares about the matter at all. Yet his first interest is for the National school, which educates his poor in Church of England principles, and for which he must toil and plan, painfully gathering subscriptions, and preparing the establishment to face the annual onslaught of the inspector. It may be said that these country foundations are not very important. They are not; yet it makes an incalculable difference to the neighbourhood whether its school is good or bad.

Case of the town grammar schools.

And in the towns matters are not greatly better. In some of these, landowners may be found associated with merchants and manufacturers. The former, who dislike the smoke and dirt of the new towns, and have no desire to intermeddle with their affairs, are no more willing to exert themselves here than in the country. The latter, who live nearer to the spot, and are more directly interested, devote themselves to business with an earnestness of which those accustomed to the quiet towns of the south can form no conception. If any time can be spared from money making, it is given to municipal or political affairs; so that the school comes last and fares worst. Where more than eight or ten trustees sit on the board, it is found necessary for them to delegate their ordinary powers to a small committee, which manages the finance and lets other things take their course.

Instance of remissness of trustees.

An example may serve to illustrate this. Going to visit an old and respectably endowed grammar school in a great manufac-

Case of a Grammar School in a great town.

turing town, I found my way with difficulty to where it lay in a remote situation, a melancholy old building, misfortune stamped upon its face. Within all was discomfort and disorder. The master—a man, I believe, of ability—was teaching some languid Latin in one room, the usher writing in another. Neither was incompetent, but both seemed thoroughly disheartened, and the boys thoroughly uninterested. These latter were few, considering the size of the town, and among them scarcely one belonging to the upper class of the citizens. Afterwards I met the trustees, and asked them how they accounted for the depressed state of their school. They had mostly been educated there, and were all or nearly all engaged in business close by it. But it was the first time they had heard it was not doing well, and the idea was so new that they required some time to master it. Then explanations (on which I need not dwell) began; and one or two of the trustees—men, I may add, of eminent practical ability—threw out excellent suggestions for rehabilitating the school, which they may, perhaps, have by this time thought of carrying out. Hitherto they had been too busy to make inquiries; the school was kept open, and that satisfied them.

Source of their indifference.

One chief cause of neglect such as this is a very common and very serious one. The trustees were people of consequence, and did not send their own children to the grammar school; hence they lost both knowledge of it and personal interest in its well-being. They complain that it is not good enough socially, and by preferring to patronize distant boarding schools they perpetuate the inferiority which they lament. In the country it may happen that the sons of farmer-trustees resort to the local grammar school. But if there is any class notoriously unable to judge of education, it is the farmer—whether the "statesman" of North Lancashire or the more substantial tenant farmer of the south and west. There are of course exceptions; but as a rule it is not by skill and zeal that a schoolmaster wins their liking, but by being their boon companion at the village alehouse.

How far the negligence of trustees is an evil.

There were persons who, while admitting the general remissness of trustees, did not fail to remark that there was another side to the picture. As Gibbon pronounced the virtues of the clergy more dangerous to mankind than their vices, so, in such men's opinion, the inertness of trustees is less harmful than their activity. The best thing that they can do is to get a good captain and let him have plenty of sea room to work the ship, full liberty to order and manage things as he judges best. He will appreciate the confidence shown, and the school will be the better for the undivided responsibility. Obviously there is some force in this. Too little interference by trustees may do harm: too much interference must. Here and there schools may be found prosperous and efficient through the exertions of their masters alone, unaided by the governors. All the most experienced and judicious trustees as well as schoolmasters declared that it was better to leave the discipline of the school, the course and method of studies, the appointment of assistant-masters, perhaps even the rate of fees, to

the uncontrolled discretion of the head-master. What then is there for them to do which they do not do now? In other words, in what points is it that this neglect is found to be a tangible evil?

Carelessness in making appointments.

In the first place, then, governing bodies exercise their patronage with too little care. This is especially the case in the smaller country schools, where one often finds masters who have failed and would fail again in their examination for a Government certificate. A thoroughly efficient teacher is certainly rarer in these schools than in those under the Privy Council. But even in the richer and more important foundations—the grammar schools in the large towns—appointments are frequently made without due inquiry, and by only a part, it may be a small part, of the whole governing body. On a rough calculation, I believe that out of 53 head-masters (it being impossible, from various causes, to form an opinion respecting the others) 16 seemed to me to have been really well chosen, 23 were passable, though not satisfactory, 14 were positively inefficient, and ought never to have been chosen at all. This is of course a loose sort of judgment, as all such must be; but it appears to show that from some cause or another, there is not so large a proportion of good masters as might fairly have been looked for; and in many instances this evil was distinctly traceable to the remissness of the patrons.

Neglect of the externals of the school.

Secondly. Trustees often suffer evils to exist which they might by a little exertion correct. Many school buildings are in a state of disrepair which seriously affects the comfort of the scholars and injures the teaching. Sometimes there is a want of the means of ventilation: sometimes of the apparatus of teaching—maps, globes, slates, desks, and so forth, which ought to be provided either by a subscription, if possible, among the people, or by a recourse to the general funds of the school. These things, which the Committee of Council require in the schools they inspect, are often through the indolence of the trustees or the master—one or both—found wanting in schools of far higher social rank.

No means provided for testing education given.

Thirdly. Governing bodies very generally neglect to take any steps to test the education given in their school. It is not that they are unwilling to have an enquiry made. I found them almost invariably pleased to see the pupils questioned, and desirous that some similar examinations should be held in future. They admit the great benefit which the annual visit of H.M. Inspector is to the National and British schools. But they seldom take steps to procure such an inspection or examination for their own schools, even when the funds at their disposal would allow them to pay 5*l.* or 10*l.* to a University examiner.

Tendency to leave the master to himself.

Lastly. Holding very few meetings—I know of cases in which there has been no meeting for three or four years together—seldom or never appearing in the school, they remove that spur which a lazy master ought to be made to feel, and withhold that sympathy and aid which a diligent master will prize so highly. In fact they allow the foundation school to relapse into the condition of a private school, with this additional disadvantage, which

private schools escape, that the master, paid as he often is by a fixed salary, has no motive to increase the number of pupils and commend himself to the parents.

IV.—Relation of the Governing Bodies to the State and the Law.

Relation of trustees to the authorities superintending charities.

Under this head I propose to state very shortly the result of my inquiries into the attitude of trustees towards the existing central authority, and their wishes for such a change as should better enable them to administer the schools over which they are placed.

(*a*) Authorities regulating Charities.

There are three authorities which, speaking of Lancashire only, have from time to time regulated the conduct of educational charities—Parliament, the Court of Chancery, and the Charity Commission.

(1.) *Parliament.*

Parliament.

Parliament, it need hardly be said, is very seldom invoked, and then only for some considerable change. I remember only two cases in which Acts have been passed with relation to grammar schools, incorporating the governors and conferring on them certain powers; and both were passed a good many years ago. An incorporated body of governors is generally held to be a dangerous creature, since it is less amenable to the law for its conduct than an ordinary Board is. And in one of these cases the Act seems to have been mainly obtained for the purpose of selling to a neighbouring landowner of influence a piece of land under which coal was soon afterwards discovered, and whose profits, did they now belong to the school, would make it one of the richest in the county. Such a transaction is not above suspicion, and it is a sufficient testimony to the unfitness of Parliament to exercise its authority in the regulation of school matters, that when men desired authority to do wrong, it was to the supreme power in the state that they had recourse.

(2.) *The Court of Chancery.*

The High Court of Chancery.

Lancashire schools have had less to do with Chancery than those in most other parts of England, partly because their endowments are seldom large, partly from their remoteness and obscurity. Several cases, however, came under my notice, in which lawsuits had taken place to the great injury of the school, because there was no other body to whom recourse could be had in case of a dispute. For instance, some years ago the head-master of an important grammar school, that of Kirkham in the Fylde, fell out of favour—whether deservedly or not, I do not know—with his trustees. They brought a suit against him for taking clerical duty while holding the office of teacher. After a long delay, a decree was pronounced against him; he was turned out, and a new master appointed, to whom the trustees did not hesitate to grant permission to take clerical work. Heavy costs had been incurred,

all to be paid out of the charity, and the school funds have not yet recovered the blow.

Recent cases of money expended in Chancery suits.

In another case, which happened within the last four or five years, the will of the founder had directed a school to be kept "in Marton."* Now there are two townships of the name, Great Marton, wherein the school had always stood, and Little Marton. A quarrel arising, as I was informed, in an alehouse, among some of the trustees, one of them betook himself to the agent of a neighbouring landowner, and persuaded him to induce his principal to bring a suit in Chancery for the division of the school property, so as to apply half the money to a school in Little Marton. This was done; the suit was duly heard, and decided, I believe to the great benefit of the place, in favour of the old school at Great Marton. The costs of both parties, amounting together to more than 400*l.*, were paid out of the charity, whose annual income is barely 100*l.* It will not for some time be restored to efficiency. This case was exactly one of those in which a decision on purely judicial grounds, however just, might have been unfortunate; one where, in fact, there was no need for a court of law at all, but for some sensible man to come down and look at the place, hear the representations of the parties, receive their written statements, and report to an office accustomed to deal with such questions from a practical point of view.

One other instance of a slightly different kind may not be amiss. The solicitor of a grammar school happened to be one of its trustees, and for some reason or other—good or bad I know not, no one could tell me—he commenced proceedings in Chancery. Nothing came of them in any way; but upon his death it was found that a bill was due to him and the lawyers in London of 700*l.* for legal work done. The trustees knew little or nothing about the matter, but the items were there, and they sold an estate to pay the money. The foundation, whose buildings are to this day a disgrace to the town, could ill afford the sum, which ought to have erected a new school-house. Other cases might be adduced, in almost all of which the questions involved were not such as to require judicial treatment; but as they have become far less common of late years, those already given may suffice. The effect of such examples has not been lost upon governing bodies. They have contracted an exceeding dread of Chancery, and are unwilling to consider projects of change from the fear that they might be dragged into trouble and expense to which they would see no end. They even avoid going for permission to do simple things, such as selling a farm, thinking that though it may be easy to get into court, it is not so easy to get out: and in matters of more consequence they are greatly deterred by the knowledge that on any point which admits of legal contention an opposition may be raised in the neighbourhood, and their plan defeated or mutilated in spite of its intrinsic merits.

Impression produced by frequent Chancery suits.

* I give the story as it was given to me upon the spot.

(3.) *The Charity Commission.*

The Charity Commission: feelings with which it is regarded.

Towards the Charity Commission this feeling of fear and aversion is much less strong. Some few trustees I found whose jealous desire to keep the school as much as possible in their own hands, led them to avoid "giving the Commissioners a handle," as they expressed it, by referring to them on any matter needing their permission; but in general the Commission and its doings are regarded with great good will, and recourse would be had to it more frequently than is now the case, were it not often confounded with the Court of Chancery, and were the scope of its action better known.

Its existence and functions not fully understood.

There is one very remarkable case in Wales, Pwllheli in Caernarvonshire, in which a valuable endowment was lost to a town, apparently because none of the inhabitants knew to whom to apply to save it. Such remissness or ignorance could hardly be found even in the remote parts of Lancashire, yet it is true that the existence and functions of the Charity Commission have not yet become familiar to the country. Stories were brought to me of charities (not educational) lost within the last fifteen or twenty years, which an application to the Commission might have saved. There are, I was informed, many charities which do not now render to it, as they are bound to do, a yearly statement of accounts. A more important cause of the comparatively few cases in which recourse is had to the Board (there are, I believe, only two of their schemes now in operation in Lancashire), is to be found in the belief that they cannot accomplish all that is needed. Sometimes the changes desired are such as to transcend all authority save that of an Act of Parliament. Such would be the local removal of an endowment or the application to education of funds now spent in enabling poor people to get drunk on St. Thomas' day. Sometimes it is feared that there might be an appeal, and thus the school funds be charged with the costs of a Chancery suit. And these apprehensions, naturally enough, deter men from action even where they are probably ill-founded.

Causes of its slight effect hitherto in Lancashire.

(β) Schemes.

Schemes issued by the Court of Chancery.

The Court of Chancery has not imposed schemes upon many of the Lancashire schools, and the Charity Commission upon very few indeed. On this subject, therefore, there is but little for me to record. But having endeavoured, in conformity with your Instructions, to ascertain how existing schemes were found to work, and with what feelings they were regarded by the trustees, and especially by the person who has most reason to know them —the schoolmaster himself—it may be well to state what was laid before me.* Four defects are charged upon the schemes issued by the Court of Chancery.

Points in which they are held defective.

* The Chancery schemes are not always printed, so that in one or two cases I have not been able to see the scheme.

(1.) They are not sufficiently bold in introducing changes required by the altered circumstances of the school or the neighbourhood. In many cases in which it would have been better to give power to impose a fee, they have expressly forbidden it. They have retained rules restricting the benefit of the endowment, or prescribing certain qualifications for the master (*e.g.* that he should be a clergyman or a graduate of Oxford or Cambridge), which it would, in the particular case, have been obviously better to dispense with. Frequently, of course, this has arisen not from a want of appreciation of the needs of the case, but from the necessity of obeying precedents already laid down. Reluctance to introduce reforms.

(2.) They are over minute in their provisions. All sorts of details, which had better be left to the judgment of the trustees and master for the time being, are settled in so express a fashion that the trustees cannot modify nor the master evade them. For instance, the exact length of the vacations is prescribed, the hours of opening and closing school, the number of boarders, the procedure to be followed in admitting boys, the ages at which they may come and must leave, the conditions of tenure of the exhibitions, all of them matters with respect to which no rule can be laid down that will suit every school, nor the same school during twenty consecutive years. There are in particular two points wherein this minuteness operates for ill. One is the command to teach certain subjects, for which it may happen that there is not and cannot be a demand.* The other is the specification of the salaries to be paid to each master and the fees to be levied on the boys, both of which must necessarily vary according to the revenues of the school and the class of scholars resorting to it. Nothing is more provoking to an energetic master who raises the school from wretchedness into prosperity than to see the trustees debarred from granting him any increase of income, or from requiring any larger payment from the sons of substantial farmers and shopkeepers than the scheme has laid down with respect to labourers. In such cases I frequently found trustees evading some rules† and masters disobeying others, of course at the peril of being exposed or proceeded against by any sharp-sighted inhabitant who had a spite against them. Naturally, too, in disregarding some, they become careless of others which it would have been well to observe strictly. It need not be said that all this happens because the trouble and expense of going to the Court for a change are found too serious to be undertaken for anything short of a crying evil. Excessive minuteness and prolixity.

(3.) They witness to an imperfect comprehension of the educational functions of a school. There is no reason why lawyers should know anything more about teaching than teachers know about law, and these schemes often handle questions on which none Deficiency in dealing with educational work of schools.

* At Kirkham, for instance, among other elaborate regulations, it is provided that the Scriptures shall be daily read in Greek, Latin, and English. In Latin they are never read at all.

† *e. g.* In one case, being ordered to pay a master not more than 70*l.* per annum, and having money to spare, the trustees created his wife mistress and gave her 30*l.* In another a rule that school should begin at 8 a.m. in summer and 8½ in winter, had been wholly disregarded for many years, and the vacations given were longer than those permitted by the Scheme.

but a man of some practical experience in teaching, or at least in dealing with schools, can form a sound opinion. Teachers, for instance, know that to class boys by age alone may produce both inconvenience and injustice. Similarly to allot, as some schemes have done, a certain proportion of boys to be taught by the usher in all subjects, the rest by the master,* is to approve the worst of all possible plans of organization. Other provisions respecting the relations of the master to the usher, and of both to the trustees, as well as respecting the substance of the education itself, need not be dwelt on, since it is sufficiently obvious that a court of law is not peculiarly fitted to understand and decide on affairs of this nature. But it may be remarked that even purely legal matters, such as the vesting of the estate in an official trustee, and thereby turning the trustees into a body of managers who can fill up vacancies as soon as they occur, seem to be handled with less care and success by Chancery than by the Charity Commission.

Want of consistency and principle.

(4.) The schemes are not uniform. By this it is not meant that all schemes should be alike, since diverse conditions need diverse rules, but that it is hard to discover any fixed and self-consistent principles guiding the practice of the Court. In cases perfectly similar different branches of the Court, or the same branch at different times, adopt views opposed to one another, so that even that security which precedent is held to give disappears. I found in the country an impression that certain judges were more likely than others to favour the imposition of fees in schools hitherto free, and to allow the masters to receive boarders.

These defects, which it is right to admit have become fewer of late years, may be reduced to two causes. The schemes are not perfect in themselves, since not framed by a proper authority, and they attempt to do what no system of rules constructed once for all can possibly do. In other words, it is not so much legislation that is needed as administration.

(γ) Need of a Central Authority.

Matters in which the action of a central authority is desirable.

There are four points wherein endowed schools appear to suffer from the want of a suitable central—or, at any rate a non-local—authority to which their trustees or masters, or other persons interested in their welfare, might have recourse.

1. Alterations in constitution.

(1.) As has been already stated, there are changes to be made which no existing power, except Parliament, is competent to make; changes which, in some cases at least, would be met by very little local opposition; so that nothing but the expense prevents their being brought before Parliament now. There are also other alterations within the competence of the Court of Chancery and the Charity Commission, but which cannot be so well made by those authorities as by persons acquainted with the practical working of schools.

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* This is frequent in Chancery schemes. I remember it in at least one Charity Commissioners' scheme, that of the grammar school at Hales Owen, in Worcestershire.

(2.) Many occasions arise in the management of schools in which the trustees and master need not merely authority, but likewise advice and information. There is little communication between the schools even of one county, much less of different parts of England, and trustees or masters often adhere to antiquated systems of government or organization and teaching merely because they have not heard what is being done elsewhere. I was frequently struck by this even in the towns, and much more in the remote rural districts of Lancashire, and could not help attributing to it many of the defects of the rules and byelaws by which schools are governed. If the master in suggesting and the trustees before ordaining these rules could have gone to some body of persons familiar with education, and aware of its state over all England, many errors and strivings might have been avoided. Even the financial management of endowments, a subject in which local trustees are most at home, could have been greatly bettered by the suggestions of a central board, conversant with different methods.* Over and over again I have met with cases in which trustees have been longing for some one to advise them, sometimes on points of law, sometimes on the sort of master whom they should appoint, sometimes on the tenure of exhibitions, sometimes on the best mode of making the endowment available to the neighbourhood, sometimes on the erection of school buildings, and I know not what besides. Nor are the more enterprising masters less eager to pick up information respecting school books and modern methods of teaching, and the present requirements of the universities. Frequently they expressed a wish to have somebody to which they might refer, as persons connected with Government schools refer to the educational department of the Privy Council.

2. Advice and information on legal and practical questions.

(3.) Instances are not rare in which something in the nature of a judicial decision is needed to settle disputes or rectify evils in schools. Where the question is of great public importance or affects rights of property, satisfaction would not be felt with any sentence but that of the supreme tribunals of the land. Most cases, however, are not of this character. They turn not on the construction of statutes or wills, but in what is most generally expedient for a town and practically fairest to the persons concerned. Some examples may perhaps illustrate this. Controversies arise now and then between the master and the trustees, which it is well that there should be some means of settling without the expensive and technical process of a lawsuit. They claim and he claims the right of appointing his subordinates—a point, it may happen, respecting which the rules are ambiguous. They desire some subject to be taught which he refuses to teach. Very often they have wished to remove him and have failed, being unable to prove any serious offence, though his incompetence may be plain enough. On the other hand it may happen that he

3. Decisions or pacifications in dispute affecting the school.

* The Charity Commission is of course now competent to give such suggestions, but trustees seldom refer to it, apparently not conceiving of it as an advising body.

needs redress against them. In the village of Bispham, near Blackpool, I found an excellent master teaching in a wretched schoolroom, small, dirty, ill-ventilated, which a body of non-resident trustees refused to rebuild, threatening, as I was told, to turn him out if he said another word about it. It would have been a great gain to this master to have had a board before whom his case might be laid. There is yet another class of persons whose interests need protection — the inhabitants. Flagrant jobbery, although less common than it once was, is not extinct, and cases arise where it would be well if there existed a body the fear of whom could be kept before the eyes of trustees while electing. Not long ago the bishop of a diocese saw cause, after a strict investigation, to refuse to induct a candidate into a living to which he had been presented. Immediately the candidate's friends procured the resignation of the master of a neighbouring grammar school, presented him to the living, and got the original candidate into the grammar school, although his offence was notorious, and was of a nature specially disqualifying him for an educational post. The bishop was indignant, but powerless; there was no authority whose interference he could invoke. In another case a majority of the trustees had appointed a personal acquaintance to be second master of an important school, scarcely venturing to allege his fitness. The inhabitants cried out, and the incumbent of the parish declared he never would sit on the board again (a threat which I believe he kept), but the appointment was made beyond recal.*

Protection needed for the inhabitants.

Instances in point.

Those who expressed their wish for an authority to deal with such cases admitted the need of fixing some rules of procedure and decision, in order to give the public confidence in the justness of the result. But they agreed that even with such rules a tribunal in the nature of the Charity Commission would be far more accessible, cheap, and practically serviceable than the Court of Chancery or the Court of Queen's Bench. And they affirmed their belief that the mere existence of a body before whom complaints might be brought to be sifted would remove many of the grounds for complaint that now exist. Four hundred pounds, they said, would not then be spent in trying to split in two the school at Marton.†

4. Right of interfering uninvoked.

(4.) Over and above all these cases in which a body seems to be needed to whom application may be made by trustees, or teachers, or inhabitants, others present themselves in which no local initiative is to be looked for. Here the impulse must come from without—from the central authority itself. Such right to interfere *proprio motu* appears to be required in three sets of instances:

To reconstitute certain schools at present without any governing body.

(*a.*) Where there are no trustees. In Rochdale, Whalley, Chorley, and several other less important places, no body of persons exists entitled to control the master or administer the school. In others it is at least doubtful whether there are any legally appointed. Such doubts should be set at rest, and suitable local boards erected if

* Neither of these cases happened in Lancashire. † Vide supra, p. 453.

it were only for the sake of the school property, and in order that the townspeople may be brought into relation with the school.

(*b.*) Where the trustees are incapable or untrustworthy. In Lancashire this is happily not often to be found, but in some other parts of the country, and especially in Wales, gross negligence is frequent, and delinquency is not unknown. What I saw and heard led me to believe that there are many cases in which no two inhabitants can be found to take the responsibility of coming forward and invoking the Charity Commission, where yet it is most needful that they should be invoked. Stories are afloat of lands purloined from the school by neighbouring proprietors, of other lands let by trustees to themselves at too low a rent, of a rentcharge paid on a farm when its whole rent should be paid instead, of indefensible appointments perpetrated and others in contemplation—stories whose truth it was difficult to ascertain, but some at least of which demanded an inquiry. In most or all of these cases the powers of the Charity Commission, as it is at present constituted, are sufficient for action, supposing it appealed to. But it is not, and is not likely, under the present state of things to be, appealed to; it does not, so to speak, sufficiently fill the public eye,—its powers are known to be limited; its inspector is not often seen.* To admonish and supervise existing boards.

(*c.*) Where, although there is neither a contention nor an abuse, there is work to be done, and no one who will take the trouble to set about it. This seems a vague expression, but one hardly knows how else to state the case. It has frequently happened to me, after visiting a school, to have to address the trustees in some such fashion as this: "You admit that the funds in your possession are "producing no adequate result: why should you not make some-"thing more of them? Why not institute scholarships or add a "cheap boarding house? You say there is a great want of a "good commercial school in such a suburb: part of the money "might go to build one there, which should feed the grammar "school. You tell me there is not a place in the town where a "girl can get a sound education without the frippery you complain "of: could you not set up a girls' grammar school?† The Charity "Commission would be glad to get powers for you." To this they always answered that it might be very true, but really there was nobody to undertake the thing, to form plans, raise subscriptions, and go through the trouble which such a project necessarily involves. "If some one would set us a-going," they said, "we might go on; "but hardly otherwise, for we are busy people down here, and "don't know much about this sort of thing." It was easy to reply that if they wanted to be helped they must help themselves, and that it would be endless for a central board to undertake to organize schools for all England. At the same time one could not but feel how much good in such cases an impulse from without might do in collecting to a point the efforts of many private persons, and giving a definite object to those wishes for educa- To set on foot projects of school extension and reform.

* The inspectors of the Charity Commission seem to have paid comparatively few visits to Lancashire, why, I do not know.

† Using the word in a wide sense.

tional improvement which are so loudly expressed on all sides. In Lancashire, at least, the great point is to get an enterprise started, and to set before the random energy that there abounds a specific aim. Nowhere in England is money subscribed more quickly or more liberally.

The general conclusions which an inquiry into the history of the schools and the wishes of the trustees seemed to support may be summed up as follows:

General conclusions.

1. That schools incur serious expense and inconvenience from being obliged to recur, in cases not of a strictly judicial character, to the Court of Chancery.

2. That the schemes established by the Court of Chancery are usually cumbrous, and frequently ill-suited to the existing condition of things.

3. That the influence of the Charity Commission is beneficial and acceptable, so far as it goes, but that it is not adequately felt in the country.

4. That it is not desirable to have such matters of educational detail as the salaries and duties of masters, the subjects and methods of instruction, and the scale of fees, permanently settled by authoritative schemes.

5. That on the other hand boards of local trustees are not in all respects competent to arrange such matters in a satisfactory way.

6. That a solution of the difficulty may perhaps be found in empowering trustees to regulate such matters by bye-laws, with the aid and subject to the approval of some central educational authority.

7. That questions often arise, especially as between the trustees and the masters of endowed schools, in which it is desirable that reference should be made for advice or decision to a non-local authority, conversant with educational questions.

8. That there are many cases in which the absence or apathy of trustees and the timidity or ignorance of inhabitants seems to demand the uninvoked interference of a non-local body, whether with or without power to decide and arrange without appeal.

C.—Application of the Endowment.

Of all the questions connected with the subject of endowed schools, the most serious and difficult is that which has reference to the disposal of their endowments. It may be viewed in two aspects. We may ask (1), What were the circumstances under which and the intentions with which these gifts were made? (2) What are the methods in which they are employed now, and how is each of these methods found to operate? I propose to speak of these topics in the order indicated.

I.—Application designed by the Founder.

Founders' intentions.

Your Instructions directed me to inquire with particular care how far the schools I visited "seemed to be fulfilling the purpos e

for which they were founded," and to inform myself "both what sort of education the founder meant to prescribe, and to what class of children he meant to give that education." Guided by these words, I set myself to discover by a scrutiny of the original documents what was the true nature and design of each foundation. Very soon, however, it appeared that the evidence they furnished was so scanty and vague that they could not be interpreted to any purpose, except by falling back upon a consideration of the state of society and education in the times to which they belonged. Taking this course, and putting together the founders' words and the collateral information which showed their natural and probable meaning, the intention underlying the words became, in most cases, sufficiently plain. But it was an intention foreign to the ideas and needs of our own time, and capable, therefore, of throwing little light on the questions which at this moment perplex us. In the earlier part of the middle ages the use of letters, confined, it need not be said, to the clergy, was given to them in the universities and in the schools of the monasteries. Towards the close of the fifteenth century the revival of letters in southern Europe produced a feebler, yet a visible and increasing, desire for knowledge among the laity of England. Thus in the time of Henry the Seventh the sons of rich parents were educated, but educated by the clergy alone; by the domestic chaplain at the manor house, or in the school of some monastic foundation. The priests of the chantries in particular—a vast number of whom were scattered over Lancashire—were in many cases expressly charged by the terms of their foundation with the teaching of grammar, and no doubt in many others availed themselves of such a means of increasing their scanty pittance. Thus we hear of chantry priests teaching grammar schools in Warrington, in Middleton, Blackburn, Leyland, S. Michael-upon-Wyre, and at S. Katharine's in the chapelry of Liverpool in the parish of Walton. And it is out of such chantries that two of the greatest Lancashire schools—those of Manchester and Lancaster—seem to have arisen. Now the Reformation, while it stimulated the education of the laity by raising them to a religious equality with the priesthood, also destroyed the provisions for their education which the liberality of previous founders had called into existence. Schools therefore began to be founded, in some instances by the sovereign out of the revenues, or rather a small part of the revenues, of the suppressed abbeys and chantries; in others by private persons whose wise benevolence sought to supply the most pressing need of the country. By the Tables contained in another part of this Report it will be seen that most of the endowed schools of Lancashire arose during the century and a half that followed the Reformation.

Necessary method of inquiry.

State of education in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.

Effect of the Reformation.

When these schools, or at least the earlier among them, were founded, the condition of the great bulk of the people was one of gross ignorance, nowhere grosser than in Lancashire, which seems to have been one of the least civilized as it was one of the

Condition of the people: mixture of classes.

Primary motive actuating founders.

poorest parts of England. A founder's first idea was, therefore, to set up some sort of place of learning, to prevent the people, rich as well as poor, from growing up in absolute brutishness. The difficulty of getting taught was by no means confined to the poor, who could not afford to pay for teaching; it pressed scarcely less heavily on the better class, within whose reach there might, in these remote and thinly-peopled districts, be found no school for their children. In intelligence as well as in the external way of living, there was no such striking difference between the yeoman and the day labourer, between the trader and the artizan, as has since then grown up. Even the squire was little more refined in manners than his peasants, while at the same time the social barrier that separated him and them was so impassable that a freedom and ease of intercourse prevailed to which we should vainly seek a parallel now. Since therefore there was no fear of social mixture and no possibility of contamination, all the children of the parish were accustomed to resort to the same school. Class distinctions, in the matter of education, had no existence, and cannot, therefore, have been within the view of the founders of these schools. They draw no line between poor children and the other inhabitants; they say only that the school is for the instruction of "children and youth," or of "all children," or of "poor and other children," and so forth. Frequently it is provided that no admission fee, or no cockpenny, shall be required from the poorer scholars, implying that not all would be poor.

Second chief motive for the founding of schools.

The second motive by which we may suppose founders to have been actuated was a desire that there should be a due supply of persons qualified for the Christian ministry. It was towards this that the efforts of the monastic schools had been chiefly directed; it was here, therefore, that the void caused by their destruction was most painfully felt; and it need not be said that in carrying out such a purpose, in providing graduates to fit boys for the universities where their education as clergymen might be completed, a founder cannot be supposed to have designed to benefit one class any more than another, since the Christian ministry lay open equally to all.

Other motives.

With these motives many others conspired which need no discussion. Founders sought to benefit the place of their birth or education, or to perpetuate their own memory, or perhaps only to leave their money away from their relations. Just as, before the Reformation, a man willing to do a charity founded a chantry, or gave lands to an abbey or collegiate church, so when these gifts were forbidden, he fell back upon a school as the most simple and beneficial form a charity could take, and endowed it, not caring particularly what it was to teach or what children were to use it, but resting in the belief that before his death he had done a good deed, to be counted in his favour whether in this world or the next.

Answers to questions proposed.

With regard, then, to the two points mentioned in your instructions, the conclusions to which the facts seemed to point were briefly as follows:—

(*A.*)—*As respects the Sort of Education which the Founder meant to prescribe.*

The first question to be asked is, What education then existed in England? and this is fortunately a matter beyond uncertainty. Now-a-days we recognize three types of education—the liberal or classical, the so-called practical or commercial, and the elementary. In the 16th or 17th centuries no such distinction seems to have been known. Elementary and commercial education were not thought of, and classics were taught because there was nothing else to teach. English literature did not exist; the English language had no grammar, and was looked on as little better than a modern dialect fit for conversation but not for serious composition. Spelling, as every one knows, was a matter of indifference. Neither history nor geography were recognized as subjects of instruction; even arithmetic, despite the daily need of it, cannot have been systematically taught, since it is never mentioned in the foundation deeds and rules of the schools. There remained only Latin, valued not for the reasons urged on its behalf now—its utility as a means of intellectual discipline—but as the one grammatical language and literary language, the necessary preliminary to theological and scientific study. Thus it is that down till the time of the Commonwealth testators were content to prescribe "Latin," or "Latin and Greek authors," or Latin and "good learning," or "grammar and the rules of learning," or "literature, the rudiments of grammar, and other school learning," or "grammar, poetry, and good Latin authors," and so forth, and it is not till after the Restoration that we find mention of accounts and writing. The only exception I have been able to discover is in the case of Kirkby Ireleth school, in the parish of Dalton-in-Furness, where, in A.D. 1624, Giles Brownrigge directs that the master shall be "able to teach grammar, to write a fair hand, to cypher and cast accounts." After the Stuarts Latin begins by degrees to be dropped, and it is within the last hundred years that most of the numerous non-classical schools of Lancashire have been established. Perhaps the most noticeable feature of all about the earlier foundations is that in so many of them there is no specification of instruction at all. The founder requires his master "to keep grammar school," "to teach a free school," "to fit boys for the University," and so forth—phrases whose vagueness implies little attention to the exact subjects to be taught, but rather a desire to found a school of a certain well-known class; and this class, there seems every reason to believe, was the only one then known. Positive evidence apart, we should attribute great folly to the founders of schools in remote country places, far up among the mountains or on the sands of a lonely coast—places where there have never been any inhabitants save shepherds and ploughmen, if we supposed that they chose to have these shepherds and ploughmen taught Latin rather than English. And the positive evidence we possess goes to show that as soon as a child of whatever condition could read, he was set to learn the Latin grammar and read Latin

What education was prescribed.

Classics: Why dwelt on by the earlier founders.

Kirkby Ireleth.

authors, since there was nothing else for him to learn. Thus, James Pilkington, Bishop of Durham under Queen Elizabeth, in
Rivington. the statutes drawn up by him for his school at Rivington, after expressing a wish "that none be admitted into the school but that can read," goes on at once to describe with great minuteness the process in which Latin is to be taught to the young scholar, saying no word of any other secular instruction. So the founder of
Penwortham. Penwortham School (in A.D. 1552) desires his schoolmasters to teach as well all such young children coming to him to be taught in the "absay catechism, primer, and accidence pervely," as all other scholars which should be disposed to be taught in grammar; that is to say, he creates, unlike Bishop Pilkington, a preparatory department in his grammar school wherein the youngest class are to be received and taught, not to read English alone, but English with the Latin accidence. Similar is the phrase used in the foundation deed of Kirkham school, nearly a century later. It may therefore be concluded that down to the times of the Commonwealth, founders meant by Latin or grammar neither more nor less than learning generally—any learning which went beyond the knowledge of reading, then, as now, frequently acquired at home, and acquired by persons whose studies go no further. Hence the prescription of classical instruction in these earlier foundations supplies no argument as to what the true intent and meaning of the founder would be were he living now.

Other subjects mentioned in the later foundations. When we come down to the eighteenth century, the case alters. Bishop Pilkington was satisfied with directing how grammar, rhetoric and literature should be taught in his school at Rivington. But when the excellent Roger Kay founds his
Bury. school at Bury in A.D. 1729, he is careful, after prescribing the study of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, to go further and require the usher to teach writing and arithmetic in the lower school. Similar provisions are frequent in foundation deeds from the time of the last Stuarts, and down till the present century, although the old phrases, "grammar school" and "free school" are still sometimes used without further explanation. In the case of these later founders, therefore, there is no difficulty. English schools did exist in their times, and when they mentioned Latin one cannot doubt that they did it of express purpose, meaning to give a higher education than was supplied by the common elementary schools, whether endowed or private. To the wishes of the earlier founders we have no such clue, for Latin in their mouths has no such meaning. It is "education," and nothing more.*

(*B.*)—*As respects the Class of Boys the Founder desired to educate.*

Second question: Here, as before, we have two data to go by, the state of education at the time, and the founder's own words. Now, if it be true

* One may compare with this the use of the word 'humanity' in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, 'Latin' answering then to what would now-a-days be called 'culture.'

that there was but one set of schools in the country, it is plain that such schools must have been used by all classes, though by the poorest class to a far slighter extent than now. Everything which we know respecting those times goes to strengthen this view. Population was so thin that a neighbourhood could hardly have supported more than one school, and the practice of sending boys to boarding schools was almost unknown.* Instances are recorded of the sons of knights and noblemen being educated at the village school, and the statutes of several of the older schools, such as Rivington aforesaid, give intimations of such a state of things. The best evidence, however, is to be found in the fact that this practice continued to prevail in Scotland till the present, and in the north of England until the last generation. Fifty years ago, the son of the Lancashire squire sat on the same bench as the son of the ploughman in the free school of the hamlet, and was not supposed to take any harm by the contact. For although the distinction of classes was greater then than it is now, the social separation of classes was far less rigid.

What class of children were to use the schools?

Argument from social state of the country.

The words of the founders, so far as they touch upon the point, lead to the same conclusion. Little is said about the children who are to use the schools, except that they are to be natives of such a place, but that little seems to include all the children without distinction of rank. Generally, the phrase is "for the teaching and training up of children and youth," "for the instruction of young men and boys," or other words to the like effect. Sometimes it is stated to be, for "all children,"† and often provisions are found respecting the entrance fees to be paid by persons of different ranks which show that rich as well as poor were likely to attend. It is generally in the later foundations—those especially of the eighteenth century—that the poor are expressly mentioned as objects of the charity, and even then this is usually done by way of making a provision to admit them, or a certain number of them, free of charge, without any discernible intent to exclude the richer sort. Certainly it is not until we reach the eighteenth century that we find schools expressly for the poor, in which only an elementary teaching is to be given, often with other benefits in the way of clothing or food. And these schools are described in words which cannot be mistaken—words pointedly contrasted with those of the earlier founders. Putting these indications along with those which the records of the state of society in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries supply, it cannot be doubted that the grammar schools were designed for the benefit not of one class or the other, but of all classes equally. The notion of class education, as we understand it,—of one sort of teaching and one set of schools for the poor, another for the rich, is wholly modern, and was indeed foreign not merely to the

Phrases used by the founders.

Foundations were for the common benefit of all classes.

* When boys went away from home, as the sons of the better class often did (witness Shrewsbury), they lodged round about the school. The statutes of Rivington prove the existence of the custom there.

† So at Goosnargh.

practice and social condition, but to the very conceptions of our ancestors. To them education, like religion, was a sacred thing; not indeed, like religion, necessary to and therefore to be enforced upon all mankind, but to be given, when given, ungrudgingly and without distinction of birth or worldly goods—given, as the mediæval church gave it, to those who approved themselves fittest to profit by it, and turn it to account in the service of the church and commonwealth.

The question, therefore, how we are to carry out the founders' intentions is not a simple one. It is not enough to wish to observe them; the difficulty is to know what, as applied to modern times, they are. They were formed under a state of things which no longer exists; the words in which they are couched have not really the same meaning as they had then, and if we follow the letter we are in danger of neglecting the spirit. In any case, the election between letter and spirit must be made. If we choose the former alternative we shall teach classics and nothing but classics to the children of labourers who will not come to learn. If we take the latter, we are virtually free to make what seems the best use that can now be made of funds which, whatever their secondary purposes, were at any rate primarily designed to advance the public good by giving every one the chance of a sound education.

Practical questions respecting founder's intentions.

There are, in the case of the Lancashire schools, three points upon which the question of founders' intentions is most frequently raised:

1. As to the gratuitous character of the school.

Gratuitous instruction.

The earlier founders seem to have directed their schools to give instruction without charge, mainly because such had been the practice in past times. The schools of the monasteries were free (as far as fixed payments went), and so were the lectures of professors in the universities: education was held to be a thing for which a man should not pay otherwise than by free-will offerings. Furthermore, they wished in creating a charity to confer a direct pecuniary benefit on the inhabitants of favoured spots, believing, what was then probably true, that their endowment would suffice to procure a competent teacher. Later founders did the same, in obedience to the custom which they saw existing. They even appear to have been deceived by the phrase 'free school,' which was by this time losing its original meaning, and beginning to be construed as equivalent to gratuitous. But neither the earlier nor the later creators of schools intended that well-to-do people should contribute nothing to the schoolmaster's support. Though sometimes forbidding him—doubtless for the sake of the poor—to receive any school hire, they authorized admission fees, and recognized the custom of cock-pennies and other voluntary gifts, providing only that these should not be exacted from the needy. At present there are two sets of cases in which it is proposed to evade the founder's prohibition of fees, or, as others would say, to transgress his rule for the sake of attaining his chief end. The one is where the funds which he designed for the support of the school have not increased in proportion to the increased price of food and

other commodities (including education). The other is where a distinct benefit would be conferred on the town or district, by imposing a fee sufficient, without wholly excluding the poorer people, to procure abler masters and better buildings.

2. As to restrictions of place, confining the benefits of the school to the natives of some limited district. Restrictions of place.

These are commonly of little practical importance. Where the foundation provides free education for the boys of a certain parish, there is no motive for extending this privilege to those from without; and still less is there any reason for excluding them if willing to pay a suitable fee. But it is sometimes the rule that school exhibitions (where such exist) can be competed for only by boys born or residing within a specified district, and when there are no boys of that district qualified, the exhibition remains unused. This frequently happens to the disadvantage of all parties. In his natural desire to provide first for his own neighbourhood, the founder does not seem to have remembered that the good he wished might take more than one form; that the presence in a school of boys coming from a distance may by raising the quality of the instruction and the general tone improve the school while it enriches the town. The local sentiment which dictated these restrictions has itself become greatly weaker as communication has become easier, and in a region like Lancashire can hardly be said any longer to exist. There appears then to be ground for considering whether remarkable changes in the condition of the country do not here make it allowable to revise and modify the exclusive regulations which, while intended to benefit each part of a district separately, fail to benefit it as a whole.

3. As respects the nature of the instruction to be given. Subjects to be taught in the school.

It is here that the intentions of the founder were most vague. Usually, as has been said, he names only grammar or good learning, with or without piety, virtue, good manners, and the catechism, and names these only because they were the things which he saw everywhere taught. If, therefore, in the course of three centuries any change has passed upon the character of instruction in England, if subjects then unknown or unregarded have come to be recognized as intellectually valuable or practically useful, it is reasonable to think that the spirit of the foundation will be best carried out by introducing them into the school course. It would be paying a poor compliment to the benefactors of their own generation to suppose that they would have refused to recognize and profit by the progress which knowledge has made in these later ages. Here, at any rate, we can hardly err in following the spirit rather than the letter of their words. A founder now might quite possibly direct, as they directed, that the teaching in his school should be altogether gratuitous, or that it should be restricted to the natives of a certain district. But it is not conceivable that any founder should direct Latin and Greek and nothing else to be taught in his school, or should permit a master to remain there who refused to concern himself with writing, arithmetic, and geography.

The truth is that it is impossible to observe strictly the founder's intentions as regards the subjects to be taught without violating them as regards the persons to be taught. A school exclusively or mainly classical must in Lancashire be a boarding school, useless to the inhabitants. Labourers' children will not learn Latin; it is hard enough to get them taught writing, arithmetic, and a little grammar. Townspeople insist, and with reason, on having in the first place a sound commercial education for their sons; if they accept Latin at all, it must be as an adjunct.

Transmutation of grammar schools into national schools.

There is, however, one question of some practical difficulty respecting which a word may be said. Many of the small grammar schools in rural districts have been, within the last thirty years, turned into national schools, giving, under the Revised Code, a merely elementary education to the children of the poor. And there are others in which a similar charge is now contemplated. As the poor frequently complain that founders' intentions have been broken through so as to wrong them, it is worth remarking that in these cases they are alone regarded to the exclusion of other classes. The letter of the founder's rule is neglected, for Latin and Greek are abolished. The spirit of his rule is not observed, because from a national school receiving a government grant the better classes are virtually excluded. Nor are even the poor benefited, since they get from the endowment only what their neighbours in the next parish get from a government grant and local subscriptions. It becomes a question, therefore, whether in these cases the funds, or some part of them, should not be applied in a manner calculated to further superior as well as elementary education. At present they are chiefly useful as saving the pocket of the local landowner.

General conclusions respecting founder's intentions

The conclusions which the foregoing facts appear to warrant may be summed up as follows:

1. That the main object of the founder was to supply a good education, as it was understood in his day, not any particular kind of education.

2. That he prescribed Latin or grammar only because it was then the staple of education, not from any peculiar fondness for classical studies.

3. That he did not wish to benefit any one class of the community rather than another.

4. That, in particular, he did not by making his school gratuitous intend to devote it to the poor exclusively.

5. That the restrictions of place which he established, confining the school to the natives or inhabitants of a certain town or parish, were in some cases grounded on reasons no longer existing, and in others are now found to operate injuriously.

6. That his provisions, if made in the sixteenth century, cannot be literally observed, since they refer to a state of things wholly unlike that which now obtains among us. If made in the eighteenth century they may in most cases be observed; but a literal observance would often defeat their spirit.

7. That as the education he designed to give was a good one, fitting boys for the University, an application of the funds to purely elementary instruction cannot be held to be conformable to his wishes.

Since it is only by comparing and generalizing from a number of instances that any conclusion respecting founders' intentions can be attained, I thought it might be well to speak first of the subject in general. It will now be proper to come to particulars, and treat of the various forms which founders or subsequent law-givers have imposed upon their endowments, and the purposes to which they have directed them to be applied.

Purposes to which endowments have been or are applied.

II.—Application to the lowering the Price of Education.

Of these one of the most frequent, although now less common than formerly, is the giving of an education free, or at greatly reduced rates to the whole or some part of the scholars. In their origin almost all these schools were open without charge, either to all the world, or to local classes, such as the natives of a certain parish or the burgesses of a certain town. But this freedom existed only for Latin and Greek; writing and arithmetic, so soon as they began to be taught at all, were in many schools made the subject of a charge, and were generally committed to an usher to be dealt with in a separate room.* Moreover the custom prevailed of paying a small fee at entrance, and of bringing a gift to the master once or twice a year, varying from 6*s.* to 2*l.* 2*s.*† The commonest, though not the only form of these offerings was the Shrove Tuesday cockpenny, so called because out of it the master was bound to procure a cock, which he fastened by a string to a post, and fixed in a pit, where the boys pelted it with sticks. If a boy succeeded in killing the cock, it became his property; if not, the master took it for himself.‡ The antiquity of this practice and of other similar gifts appears from the original statutes of Sir T. Boteler's school at Warrington, founded in A.D. 1526, wherein it is declared lawful for the schoolmaster for the time being to take of any scholar four pennies in the year; viz., in the quarter after Christmas a cockpenny at Shrove-tide, and in the other three quarters one potation penny; "and for the same," it is added, "he shall make a drinking for all the said scholars."

Thus, even in free schools, education was—at least to persons of the better sort—by no means wholly gratuitous.§

Gratuitous instruction of the scholars.

Not so complete as usually supposed.

Warrington.

* At Ulverston, for instance, the writing school was till recently a private speculation, unconnected with the grammar school.

† Instances were given me of cockpence paid at Preston, Blackburn and Clitheroe, which reached this sum. Greater liberality was of course expected from the rich.

‡ At Heversham, in Westmoreland, the cockpit may still be seen. At Lancaster it existed a very few years ago.

§ An instance occurs to me, that of Blackrod Grammar School, now wholly gratuitous, where one of the existing trustees told me that he paid 9*s.* 9*d.* per quarter when educated there himself.

Tendency in recent times to abolish or limit this privilege.

Among other changes that have passed upon the endowed schools of the country within the last thirty years, their ancient freedom has been greatly abridged. Sometimes under the authority of the Court of Chancery, more frequently by the mere act of the governors, or even of the master of the school, fees have been imposed so high as to exclude the poor, and give a substantial increase of income to the master. In several instances these are justified as required for the teaching of the new subjects, while the school is held, by a sort of fiction, to be free for the classics as of old. Thus at Rochdale a boy may still claim gratuitous instruction in Latin and true piety. But at Rochdale, it need not be said, Latin, even with the addition of true piety, will not go far without a knowledge of accounts and a commercial hand. There are some schools, however—especially the more obscure ones in country districts—where the teaching is still given gratis. I subjoin a Table by which the number in each of the three classes before mentioned will appear.

Rochdale.

—	Wholly Free.	Partially Free.
Class A.		Bolton-le-Moors. Manchester.
Class B.		Farnworth. Great Crosby. Hawkshead. Kirkham. Leigh. Stand. Ulverston. Widnes.
Class C.	Aughton. Abbeystead. Bispham (parish of Croston). Blackrod. Bretherton. Broughton (parish of Preston). Great Marton. Penwortham. Rivington. Warton. Wray.	Goosnargh. Lea. Lowton. Pilling. Preesall. Tunstal. Whalley.

Question of gratuitous education generally:

No educational question is more frequently discussed at the present day than this of the advantages of gratuitous teaching as compared with a system of fees Nor is there any place where one hears more of it than in Lancashire, partly because the matter

has been contested with great spirit and bitterness in Manchester itself and at Giggleswick in Yorkshire, a few miles from the Lancashire border; and partly, it would seem, from some fancied connexion between free grammar schools and those free (*i. e.* pewless) churches, on whose behalf so lively an agitation is maintained. feelings regarding it in Lancashire.

The difficulty, therefore, was not to procure information, but to sift and estimate it. There are three classes of persons who hold strong views on the matter.

Firstly. There are men who desire, partly from a general conservatism, partly also from philanthropic feelings, to retain freedom wherever it exists, and admit neither paying day scholars nor boarders into the grammar schools. This party is not very numerous, but it is active, and includes some persons of admitted benevolence and worth. Its arguments, so far as I could discover, were all reducible to two, the duty of adhering strictly to the intentions of the founder, and the importance of making a good education, classical and English, accessible to the poor.

Secondly. There is a strong feeling among the mass of the people, small tradesmen, mechanics, and operatives, that an injustice is being done them in the matter of these schools. They believe that having been meant for the poor, they are now engrossed by the rich; and that in these recent changes, the ruling classes have selfishly consulted their own interests to the neglect and exclusion of their weaker brethren. This view seldom finds any public expression—it was first impressed upon me almost by accident, in talking with a cotton worker in a Preston mill; but it is widely spread and may have its share—though a comparatively small share—in making the poorer people think themselves ill-used by the rich and powerful.

Thirdly. There is a party which, desiring compulsory education and a system of rate-supported schools, desires as the necessary accompaniment of these measures to have education everywhere free. As yet, they have thought and spoken almost solely of the primary schools, but probably they would extend the system—as it is extended in America—to the superior schools likewise, wishing thereby both to benefit the poor still further, and to extend some sort of compensation to the richer people for the taxes levied on them for school purposes. I mention this party only as representing a strong and increasing phase of Lancashire opinion, for it does not concern itself with the existing endowed schools, and many of its members would probably agree with the majority of their fellow townsmen in desiring to abolish or limit gratuitous instruction in the grammar schools as they stand.

That such is the wish of the great majority of intelligent people admits of no doubt. I found a pretty general agreement among the trustees of country schools (including the clergy) that education gratis was an evil, though, they often added, an evil which they felt themselves bound to respect. In towns the concurrence of opinion was more complete. On every side I heard it declared that whatever could be had for nothing, people would persist in General feeling against giving education gratis.

thinking worth nothing, and that it was impossible to get a really good master without a system of fees.

The schoolmasters themselves were unanimous, but on their evidence I lay less stress, since their opinion may be thought, though often unjustly thought, to be affected by their own interest in having larger salaries and a better class of boys. So far, therefore, as testimony goes, the balance is against the wisdom of a purely gratuitous system. It is with great diffidence that I speak of what I saw myself, knowing how difficult it is, especially on a hasty inspection, to discover to which of many causes palpable effects are to be traced. I was struck, however, by the following features in most of the free schools which I visited.

Observations upon free schools.

Observations on the Free Schools visited.

1. Their slovenly character.

1. They are pervaded by a sort of slovenliness. Things are not well cared for nor well done; there is a lack of order and precision, often even a neglect of neatness in externals. Sometimes no record is kept of the attendance of the scholars, since neither master nor parents are supposed to have any use for it. The education is there if the boys choose to come and take it; if they do, well and good; if not, nobody is the worse, and the master need not trouble himself about the matter.

2. Want of motive for exertion in the master.

2. The absence in these schools of any motive for the master to exert himself, beyond that general sense of duty which is so much more frequently general than particular, is a defect too palpable to be passed over, although I am not prepared to say that in any single instance the inefficiency of a school was traceable to this cause alone. It is quite plain that a free school and a lazy master agree well, and that there is a natural tendency in a free school to make a lazy master. It is not merely a question of money with the teacher,—the operation of the evil is more subtle, and is to be found rather in the fact that he has no means of gauging the results of his labour by the number of the scholars. Even to a free school more boys will come when the teaching is good, but a master realizes the increase more vividly when it takes the shape of a pecuniary difference to himself, and he enjoys it not merely because he has the money, but because he sees that his labour has borne fruit.

3. Irregular attendance of the scholars.

3. The absence of fees is almost always accompanied by an unusual irregularity in the attendance of the scholars. Just as the master has no direct motive to gain boys, so the parent, having given nothing for their schooling, does not feel so distinctly that he is losing by the boy's absence. Where he has paid for the thing, the commercial instinct to have value for his money is strong enough to make him careful to take his full share of it; where he gets it for nothing his thought is, "After all, what does it matter if Tom "is away this week? he can make it up another time, and I am not "out of pocket by it anyhow." As a confirmation of this, it may be mentioned that in schools attended both by free boys and by paying boys, the master assured me that the free boys were more

irregular in their attendance. And on once or twice inspecting the register I found this to be really the case.

4. Very few of the Lancashire schools have endowments rich enough to attract first-rate ability to the masterships. It is idle to expect that a really good University man can be had for a town grammar school at a salary of 150*l.* or 200*l.* per annum, or a vigorous teacher of the elementary and commercial subjects for 60*l.* or 80*l.*; yet it is seldom that the trustees are in a position to offer a larger stipend. In such cases it appeared to me that there was really no course open except to call in the aid of fees, and thereby raise the income of the masters to a sum proportioned to the market price of educated labour in other professions. And this is no doubt the motive by which trustees, at Manchester and elsewhere, have been influenced. It is found to be almost invariably the case that the more energetic a schoolmaster is, so much the more does he desire such a system, since it makes his emolument the measure of his exertions, and gives him the means of carrying out projects for extending his school and adding to his staff of teachers. And where the population of a place is increasing, while the funds of the school are stationary, the imposition of a fee is not only the natural, but also the sole available expedient which can enable the school to keep pace with the requirements of the people whom it ought to educate. For it is plainly better, as trustees have generally felt, to do something to help many, than to do everything for a few.

4. Difficulty of paying for good teaching.

5. It frequently happens that the efficiency of a free school is injured or destroyed by the intrusion of children of the labouring class, who come to it simply to escape the penny or twopence a week of the Government school. Doubtless a mixture of classes is a good thing, and theoretically no education can be too high for any rational being. But as a matter of fact, children who are to leave school for the ploughshare or the factory at twelve had better learn their reading, writing, and arithmetic in the elementary school, which devotes itself wholly to these branches, than in the grammar school, whose classics are useless to them, and where they only distract the teachers, and drag down the general standard of instruction.* A system, therefore, which should by means of fees exclude the great bulk of such boys, while yet it makes provision for the admission of any really deserving poor scholars who may seek to carry their education further, would be a benefit to all parties, to the poor not less than to the richer class.

5. Injury to the school from children needing elementary instruction.

6. The corrupting effect of charities upon all who have to deal with them has passed into a proverb among economists. One cannot but observe something of this kind in most of the free schools. Of the apathy and stolidity which the system tends to produce in the master, I have spoken already. There is a scarcely less distinct tendency in the parents who are benefited by the

6. Tendency to neglect and despise the free school.

* I do not mean to say that there are not cases where it is desirable to unite the elementary to the grammar school, making the former a sort of preparatory department, and not suffering the elementary to encroach on the superior teaching.

endowment, to treat the school and the teachers with a mixture of insolence and indifference. Instead of feeling grateful for what they receive, they look on the charity as their right, and on the teacher as their servant. Not having given him anything for his pains, it does not occur to them that he has any rights as against them; and they are in consequence the more heedless of his remonstrances at the irregularity of their children's attendance, and more indignant when he proceeds to punishment.

It would be too much to say that these evils are constant or inevitable; on the contrary, some two or perhaps three of the free schools which I have visited were in a satisfactory state, and one indeed—the school at Abbeystead, in Over Wyersdale—might claim to stand almost at the head of schools of the same social rank in the county. It is easy to conceive of circumstances under which gratuitous education may be right and necessary. But looking at the phenomena as a whole, it cannot be doubted that the most frequent and most glaring instances of inefficiency, neglect, and general mismanagement are to be found among the free schools, and that these faults have become more rare in the same proportion in which, during the last fifty years, the number of free schools themselves has been diminished.

Advantages of the gratuitous system.

Replies to these arguments: advantages of the free school system.

Admitting, however, that some at least of the above-mentioned evils are necessarily incident to schools without fees, the question is not settled. There may be countervailing benefits in the system sufficient to outweigh all that is alleged against it. Now the benefits which I heard most commonly ascribed to it are these two—(*a*) that it now supplies a good education to people who value but could not pay for such education; and (*b*) that in past time it has done good service by linking different classes together and advancing humble talent to places of fame and usefulness.

(*a*) Alleged use of the free schools by the poorer people.

Respecting the first of these questions, simple as it seems, it is most difficult to ascertain and estimate the data for a conclusion. Minute inquiries prosecuted in every one of the free schools do not enable me to reach anything more than an approximate result. The matter is a very complex one, for we have to ascertain not only the sums which parents do pay in other schools for an equally good education, but also their capacity to pay more, supposing the education were better worth the money: and then we have further to inquire whether the children of the poorer people now to be found in the free schools go there because they think the teaching better than in the Government schools, or merely from a custom or prejudice which deserves no respect. On the whole, looking on the one hand to the present prosperity of Lancashire and the high rate of wages in almost all employments, and on the other, to the number of the government schools and the extent to which they are used by what is called the lower middle class, I was led to believe that few whom it would be desirable to include in the grammar schools would be excluded by a moderate scale of fees. It must be remembered that Government has now supplied a mul-

titude of very cheap schools which did not exist when these foundations came into existence. Taking the case of the rural schools, those comprised in class C (*v. supra, p.* 429), perhaps one-fifth of those who use them could pay 1*s.* per week, or 10*s.* 6*d.* per quarter; two-fifths 6*d.* per week, and the remaining two-fifths 3*d.* Some there would be who could not pay even this—widows, or poor cottars with large families; and many would not be willing, since the national schools charge only 1*d.* or 2*d.* But it can hardly be doubted that the national school fee is really pitched too low. Many causes make it difficult to get a labourer's child to school, but absolute inability to pay the school pence is one of the least common.* Again, taking the town grammar schools in classes A and B (in almost all of which, by the way, fees are now charged), it is probable that one-third of those who now send their sons could pay from 1*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* per quarter, and the other two-thirds from 15*s.* to 1*l.* 10*s.* A boy unable to pay 15*s.* would in nine cases out of ten be put as errand boy into a warehouse or apprenticed to a trade at twelve or thirteen years of age, so that he gains little or nothing by coming to the grammar rather than to an elementary school. Cases of course there will be of deserving persons who cannot meet this expense—a mechanic or poor tradesman with a promising boy whom he wishes to make something of; the widow of a professional man left ill-provided for, and so forth; and since these are just the cases which the old system of gratuitous schools met, it is no more than justice that a provision should be made for them under the new order of things. Of the nature of that provision—the reservation of a certain number of free places in the school—I shall have to speak again. But such cases are not numerous enough to make it worth while to lose the general benefit to be expected from fees, in whose train will come better schoolrooms and better teaching.

Fees which the classes using the free schools can afford to pay.

Into the other question, the service of the free schools in time past, I need not enter. It will be readily admitted that they did much good in bringing different classes of society together, and that they were the means of giving a start in life to many eminent persons, whose merits poverty might otherwise have kept concealed. It is also true that the Government schools do not in this respect replace them, since they are, in the worst sense of the word, plebeian institutions, giving the poor boy no chance of mixing with his richer neighbours, or of exercising his mind upon the higher subjects. But the virtues of the free school belong to a past generation and were departing from it; its evils were palpable and increasing. No wonder then that in almost all the town grammar schools the change already noticed has been made, by imposing fees and adding new subjects of instruction.

(*b.*) Past services of the free schools.

The process has been different in each case, as the circumstances of no two schools were precisely alike. Sometimes the

Means by which fees have been

* I may be permitted, in confirmation of this view, to refer to the interesting facts stated in the Report for 1866 of the Rev. J. W. Hernaman, H.M. Inspector in the counties of Worcester, Hereford, and Monmouth. Whatever can be said of those counties applies with more force to Lancashire, where the wages of agricultural labour are higher than in the West of England.

imposed in schools formerly gratuitous.

authority of Chancery was needed; sometimes the pre-existence of cockpence and other such payments enabled the governing body to levy fees on their own authority. More than once the schoolmaster seemed to have quietly brought in the new system, no one knew how or when; and it was in general surprising to find how little hostility the change had encountered when it was made without unnecessary fuss. Thus at Blackburn, while classics were nominally free, a large cockpenny was required, and writing was regularly paid for. The governors, some twenty-five years ago (no one remembered the exact date), introduced a fee of 4*l.* 4*s.* per annum, to cover everything. When the present master was appointed the charge was raised to 6*l.* 6*s.* per annum. In neither case was there any opposition offered. So at Bolton, where only cockpennies had previously been paid, a fee of 4*l.* 4*s.* per annum was recently imposed, reserving thirty-six free admissions to be given by the governors to boys already in the school. Nothing seems to have been said by the townspeople, nor would they, from what I could hear, have any good reason to complain if the freedom was still further restricted or even abolished; for the income of the school is not now large enough to ensure efficiency.

Blackburn.

Bolton.

Recent Changes—Schools partially free.

Changes introduced.

Free admissions reserved. Bolton, Leigh, &c.

So, too, the systems established by the change vary from school to school. In several cases—Blackburn for instance—the freedom has been wholly withdrawn, and all scholars placed on the same footing. In others a certain number of free places have been reserved; 36, for example, at Bolton; 8 at Leigh; 14 at Farnworth; and at Manchester, according to the proposal of the feoffees which now awaits the decision of the Court of Chancery, so many as the endowment will avail to provide for. And in a third set of instances, of which the most conspicuous are Preston and Lancaster, while there are no boys absolutely free, a certain number are admitted at a reduced rate of payment. The arrangements of this kind which now exist are sometimes coeval with the foundation itself, the freedom having been therein confined to the boys of a particular district, or to so many of them as the trustees should consider fit objects of the charity, or to those whose parents' income did not exceed a specified amount.* Sometimes they are the result of a later addition to the original foundation, a bequest having been made in consideration of which a certain number of boys were to be taught free. But more frequently they have been introduced within the last twenty or thirty years in the way above described, as a compromise between the old gratuitous system and the exaction of fees from all scholars. A reference to the Table in page 44 will show in which schools it is that the admissions are wholly

* This previous occurs in the case of Upholland Grammar School. The expression is "not worth 6*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*" In the case of one school (Lea, near Preston), Roman Catholics are excluded from the benefits of the foundation. They may come, but if they come they must pay.

free, and in which there is only a reduction made from the scale of fees paid by non-foundationers.

Working of the system of certain admissions absolutely free.

In the former set of cases, and to some extent in the latter also, the freedom is intended only for poor boys, or for those whose parents may be thought unable to defray the full cost of their education. But in practice this qualification is not strictly regarded. On making inquiry, I frequently found boys on the free lists whose parents were quite as well off as others paying full fees. There did not appear to be reason to suspect unfairness here, for I was told that the applications for free admissions seldom exceeded the vacancies, and not unfrequently there were vacancies not filled up for lack of applicants. This did not seem to be the result of a pride which refused to seek the benefits of the foundation, even when fairly entitled to them, but rather of the fact that parents desiring a grammar school education could mostly pay for it. So far, therefore, the conclusion is favourable to this plan as a whole, since it proves that in these cases the just claims of poor parents who desire a superior education are amply satisfied, while at the same time the school is enabled to maintain its character as a place fit for the sons of richer people. For if it had remained free, it would in all probability have been filled, merely on that account, by children who now resort to the Government schools, recognizing the different purpose of the grammar school, and therefore not giving themselves the trouble of seeking admission there.

Alternative plan.

Between this arrangement and that which demands some fee from every scholar, though a smaller one from the foundationers, there is perhaps not very much to choose. If the latter may be thought more theoretically perfect, the former is held to be more suitable to really poor localities, and is a more complete answer to the complaints of the poor that they are being robbed of the charities. The chief objection to it is that it gives the schoolmaster no motive, except his own benevolence and sense of duty, to have the free places filled, while since those who would fill them are likely to be of a lower social class than the rest of his scholars, he may even have a reason for discouraging their entrance. One is glad to believe that there are few masters who would, consciously at least, suffer themselves to be influenced by such motives. But it would no doubt be an improvement if instead of simply letting the boys in for nothing, a certain part of the endowment was set apart to pay their fees for them, so that as far as the master was concerned, they should stand on the same footing as his other scholars.

Method of choosing foundationers. Bolton, Leigh, &c.

The method adopted in selecting the foundationers varies a good deal. Sometimes each trustee has one or more nominations, which he fills up at his own discretion when his turn comes round. This plan prevails in Bolton, Farnworth, Leigh, and some other places. It is open to the objection that the trustee comes to look upon the nomination too much as a mere piece of private patronage, and that his candidate is not necessarily the most deserving. It may very well happen that when his turn comes he knows of no proper object

for the charity, while a year afterwards, when it is somebody else's turn, he has applications from two or three suitable persons. If the trustees live near and frequently see each other, a little trouble and mutual desire to oblige may set things right. But this is not always to be looked for, and it might therefore be better to adopt everywhere the system which already exists in several trusts, and cause each admission to be made by the trustees collectively. Nevertheless, neither this expedient nor any other method hitherto suggested can be held to meet all the difficulties of the case. There will always be persons deserving the benefits of the foundation who will be loth to seek them from the trustees; and trustees who will not have the knowledge or the zeal to exercise their patronage with untiring care.

Custom at Lancaster.

Among the systems of appointment which I encountered, none seemed to work more smoothly and fairly than that which prevails at Lancaster. There the town council, who are governors and indeed owners of the school, require application to be made through the town clerk by parents who desire to have their sons entered at the reduced rate. The council, resolving themselves into a committee, discuss the matter in private, and allow or reject the application according to their knowledge of the circumstances of the person who makes it. They of course know, and the head-master knows, who the free boys are, but none of the other scholars do; nor are the members of the committee permitted to mention the matter in the town. Lancaster admits twenty boys on this footing, paying each 4*l.* 4*s.* per annum, while others pay 8*l.* 8*s.* Preston, whose system is in most respects similar, admits as many as apply, being the sons of freemen, and requires them to pay 2*l.* 2*s.*; the others (non-foundationers) paying from 6*l.* 6*s.* to 10*l.* 10*s.* It is evident that such a plan, requiring, as it does, a good deal of judgment and tact, could not be expected to succeed everywhere, and the necessity of becoming to some extent a supplicant may possibly deter some persons from applying at all. After making inquiries, however, from many Lancastrians, I found most of the tradespeople loud in its praise, declaring that the Council had deserved well of the town for the fairness and good sense with which it was usually found to discharge so delicate a duty.

Admission by examination.

Another, and a very obvious method of regulating admissions to the foundation, has been scarcely yet attempted in Lancashire. I refer to the system of competitive examination recently established in some of the great schools of the south. Considering the age at which boys enter these grammar schools (9 to 12 or 13) there might be some difficulty in knowing how and in what subjects to examine the candidates: and no doubt any competitive examination is an evil at so tender an age. It would, however, be easy to provide free places for a certain number of the most deserving boys of the National and British schools of the town or parish. They might be selected from the boys in these schools by Her Majesty's inspector at his annual visit, or examined at the grammar school by its master or masters, admitting other boys to compete, should such

present themselves. It would also be easy to constitute the free place a sort of scholarship at the school, to be held for one or more years, and adjudged at the annual examination to the most deserving boy or boys. These, however, are matters of detail into which it is needless to enter here. I will content myself with remarking (1) that a system of admission by examination would meet the suspicion of partiality, and would secure a good education for those who would make the best use of it; and (2) that it is upon every ground most desirable to establish some sort of connexion between the elementary schools on the one hand and the grammar schools on the other, and to make the former, so far as they can be made, a nursery for the latter.

General advantages of the system of a limited number of free admissions.

It is apparently in some such plan as this that we must seek a resolution of the difficulties attending the question of free schools. As has been said already, there is a strong feeling among the poor that in the matter of these schools they are being robbed of their birthright by the imposition of fees, and it is this feeling (not unreasonable when we remember how many foundations the rich have filched away from the poor), far more than absolute inability to pay the fees, that has prompted the opposition to schemes of change. There is also among many other persons some regret that the good points of the old system, its capacity for eliciting and advancing unfriended talent, for bringing children of different classes into the same school together, should be in danger of perishing. Moreover, the private schoolmasters complain that they have not a fair field given them. Depending solely on their own exertions and the favour of capricious parents, they have, say they, to struggle against schoolmasters subsidized to the extent, it may be, of hundreds of pounds, who, while receiving public (*i.e.* charitable) funds, render no public service, but appropriate the profits to themselves. Without attaching an undue weight to such complaints, it may be admitted that they are intelligible and not unnatural. Certainly any scheme which would meet these various feelings would be eminently beneficial. And this, my informants believed, would be effected by reserving some free admissions in every endowed school, the number proportioned to the endowment. They proposed to fix the ordinary capitation fee of the school at a sum which represents the fair market price in the locality of a good education. Taking this sum, 4*l.* or 8*l.*, or even 12*l.* as the unit, they would divide the endowment by it, and admit as many boys as the endowment covers, paying the master the full fee for each, so that he has as much pecuniary interest in a free boy as in any other, and escapes the dangers and temptations of a fixed salary. Whether the foundationers should simply have their education free, or should pay a less sum than non-foundationers, or whether, on the other hand, they should receive some small sum in addition—a scholarship, in fact—these are questions which may be reserved, since they are best settled with reference to the details of each particular case. It is more difficult, as the promoters of the scheme admit, to settle in what way a place on the foundation shall be given. If by exami-

Scheme suggested: Application of endowment to pay for the teaching of foundationers.

nation alone, it is feared that the wealthier parents will have their sons specially prepared for the competition, as boys are prepared now for Eton and Winchester. If by the trustees or master, suspicion would be excited. If only to pupils already in the school, as a reward of merit, boys may be excluded whose poverty will not suffer them to come to the grammar school on the chance of a free education, though they would come on the certainty. These, however, are questions which a little experience would go far towards solving. The system is quite new—almost untried—in Lancashire, and in treating of it, I am describing the hopes and plans, rather than the matured conclusions, of those with whom I conversed. On one thing only was there a general agreement, that in some form or other the institution of school scholarships and free places appeared necessary, not only from an educational but from a social and political point of view; not only to avoid doing a gross injustice to the poor, but to benefit all classes by linking them together, and to secure that career open to talents which it was the glory of the mediæval church to provide, which it is the boast of France and America to have regained, which it is the misfortune of England to have almost lost.

III.—Application by Gifts of Money to the Scholars.

Second method of applying an endowment.

After describing the first method of applying the income of these foundations, that of giving it to the master in consideration of his instructing the scholars free, or at a lower charge than they would otherwise pay, it is proper to pass on to a second mode, that of giving money or its equivalents to the scholars themselves. This takes place in one or more of three ways. The money may be given to the boy to prosecute his studies at some other place of education, in which case it is usually called an exhibition. Or he receives it as an aid or incentive to study while remaining at the school itself. In this case it assumes the form either of a scholarship or prize. Or, thirdly, it takes a more distinctly charitable shape, and is bestowed in food, lodging, and clothing.

II.—*Of Exhibitions.*

Exhibitions.

It will be seen on referring to the Tables printed in another part of this Report, that Lancashire, in proportion to the number of its schools, is not rich in this species of endowment, the total annual value of its exhibitions being only 1,083*l.*

In proportion to the wealth and population of the county, this amount is ludicrously small. It might be thought that under such circumstances there would be a particularly brisk competition for the exhibitions which do exist. The very reverse, however, is the case.

Little desire to obtain them

There is little or no eagerness to have these exhibitions. They often remain vacant, or lapse, no candidate being found; and

when they are filled up, it is seldom by competition, and still more seldom, there is reason to fear, by boys likely to reflect back any high credit on their place of education. These remarks do not apply to the case of Manchester, whose position gives it a large choice of candidates, nor to Lancaster, a school with 90 or 100 boarders, where the exhibition has been recently founded to meet a want already felt. Nor is it likely that they will apply to the case of Clitheroe and Preston, whose exhibitions have been founded too recently to make it possible to judge respecting their working. But in the remaining eight cases the exhibition seems, from one cause or another, to have done scarcely anything during the last twenty years to improve the school or encourage struggling merit. This will best be shown by examining the cases separately.

Instances.

Middleton.

Middleton Grammar School was endowed by Dean Nowell in A.D. 1572. In committing it to the care of Brasenose College, Oxford, he created there 13 scholarships (each of 3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*, tenable for six years) to be given to boys from this school, or failing candidates thence, to the grammar schools at Whalley and Burnley. These 13 were not long since consolidated by the college into two of 20*l.* each.* The Principal of Brasenose writes regularly to inquire if there are any Middleton boys to compete; the master has, for the last twenty years, replied as regularly that there are none, and the scholarships, greatly to the satisfaction of the college, are given away by open competition. Whalley and Burnley seem to have fallen out of memory altogether, though the former school did send up one exhibitioner some fifty years ago.

Kirkham.

Kirkham possesses one exhibition to Cambridge of 80*l.* per annum, tenable for four years. Being payable out of the general funds of the charity, the depression of these funds has caused its suppression since A.D. 1845. It was difficult at such a distance of time to ascertain what good it had done before that date. I was told that it had enabled several clergymen, now holding positions of usefulness, to proceed to Cambridge for their education, but considering that it lay altogether vacant from A.D. 1814 till 1824, the demand cannot have been very great. The school has improved of late years, and the head-master informs me that applications have lately been more than once made by boys desiring to offer themselves. When in the course of a year or two the improved state of the funds permits the trustees to restore the exhibition, he anticipates a respectable supply of candidates. What I saw at Kirkham led me to believe such an expectation over sanguine; the town is small and isolated, and few of the people are likely to desire a university education for their sons.

Bolton.

Bolton Grammar School possesses two exhibitions, each of 60*l.*, tenable for four years, at Oxford or Cambridge. Till about five years ago there was a sufficient supply of candidates. For the last five years they have lain vacant.

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* Leaving one of the original value (3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.*), which is usually vacant. (*Vide* returns made by the college.)

Bury.

Bury Grammar School has two exhibitions at St. John's, Cambridge or Brasenose, Oxford, each of 20*l.**, tenable for seven years. Within the last thirty years there have been filled up only three; in these cases, I am told, by boys whose circumstances would not otherwise have permitted them to go to the University.

Blackrod.

Blackrod Grammar School has one exhibition of 65*l.* per annum, tenable for four years, at Pembroke College, Cambridge. Now Blackrod is a village in one of the richest coal districts in Lancashire. It is a miserable little place. Its so-called grammar school, founded in the time of Queen Elizabeth, is full of the children of the miners who come there from the national school for the sake of a clothing charity, and leave school altogether for the pit at 11 or 12 years of age. Of late years the exhibition has been vacant about half the time, and when filled has been held by some one who came to the school solely to get it. Its present occupant lived at the great manufacturing town of Bolton, some six or eight miles off, and came daily by railway to be taught—or rather to be physically present—in Blackrod school, merely for the sake of this 65*l.* In other words, its effect was to bring a lad from a place where he might have got a good education to a place where he must get a bad one.

Cause of these failures.

The cause of the evils in this last case is plain enough. Blackrod has no inhabitants whose children could be expected to look forward to an University education, so that an exhibition in such a place is simply thrown away. The case of Middleton is similar. The pupils there, even those of them who learn Latin, do not belong to the class whom we can expect, under the existing condition of things, to go to the University, nor would it be possible for the master, busied as he is among boys and girls learning the elements of arithmetic and grammar, to give a preparation at all sufficient. Here, therefore, it may be concluded that an exhibition is at present of no use whatever, nor likely to be of use while these schools preserve their present character.

The circumstances of Bolton and Bury are very different. These are large towns, in which many parents might be expected to value the higher education, where the revenues of the school are or might be made sufficient to maintain able and well-educated masters, and where, therefore, any connexion between the school and the University ought to bear abundant fruit. Of the causes which have hitherto prevented this, there will be occasion to speak more fully afterwards. Meantime it is sufficient to remark that the circumstances of Lancashire naturally lead boys to prefer a mercantile life to one of those professions, the church, the bar, or teaching (so far as it is a profession), to which an University education gives access. Instances of wealth rapidly gained in trade or manufacture dazzle the imagination of a Lancashire lad. To go to the University, he must remain weary years as a schoolboy, while his comrades enjoy

Indifference to an university education.

* When there is only one exhibitioner at a time he receives more; the last exhibitioner in 1844 was paid 40*l.* for his first year and 30*l.* for the succeeding ones.

comparative liberty and give themselves the airs of men. It is only a strong love for learning, or the strongly expressed wish of parents that will overcome these feelings, and parents are naturally desirous to see the boy established in life as soon as possible, instead of continuing a burden to them. Professional men, it is true—clergymen of various denominations, physicians and teachers—frequently desire a literary career for their sons. But they are seldom, even with the aid of an exhibition, inclined to afford the expense of an education prolonged till the age of twenty-two.

These obstacles, however, furnish no ground for despairing of the existing exhibitions, or neglecting to turn them to better account. The truth seems to be that this is one of those cases in which supply must precede and create demand. The tone of Lancashire education as well as of Lancashire society is, if not adverse to, at least so wholly remote from University influences and connexions, that a single exhibition here and there produces no perceptible effect. A larger number of them might excite attention and awaken interest, and end by inducing many persons who can well afford it, but are now wholly indifferent, to desire for their children what they saw others enjoying and profiting by. But without entering on this wider question there are several ways in which the usefulness of the existing foundations of this kind might be increased. These it may be well to enumerate.

Defects in the existing arrangements.

1. The tenure of exhibitions is commonly fettered by a variety of restrictions which would be much better away.

Restrictions on tenure.

(*a.*) *Restrictions of place.* Sometimes these are to a county, sometimes to a particular town or parish. Thus at Bolton only boys born in the parish of Bolton are eligible, although part of Bolton town lies in the parish of Dean, many boys from which attend the grammar school. The inhabitants of the favoured districts would often (not, however, in this instance) offer opposition to a change, but if it were provided that the candidate must have attended the school for a certain length of time, they would receive a benefit in another form, and ought not to grumble further.

(*b.*) *Restrictions respecting previous education.* The condition last-mentioned, that a boy shall have been a pupil in the school, is now and then pushed to an irrational excess. Thus at Bury the candidate must have been in the school for seven years, whereas three is quite long enough for any practical purpose.

(*c.*) *Restrictions respecting future tenure.* Frequently an exhibition must be held at some one college in Oxford or Cambridge, or in one of those universities, excluding the other. Nothing is gained and much is lost by such a rule. The college does not take any special interest in the school so connected with it. The boy is prevented from seeking the university or college whose style of education or cheapness of living may be best adapted to his intellect or his income. He loses, moreover, the chance of winning over and above his school exhibition a scholarship at some one of the thirty-five colleges of Oxford and Cambridge, since, to hold such a scholarship at any college but the one to which his exhi-

bition is attached, he would have to resign the exhibition itself. As this makes the difference of 60*l.* or 80*l.* per annum to his resources, it is often a cause why the clever sons of poor parents give up the idea of an university education altogether. To remove the restriction would therefore be to increase considerably the pecuniary value of the exhibition itself.

No sound reason seems to be alleged against taking a still bolder step, and abolishing the rule which requires the exhibitioner to proceed to Oxford or Cambridge. If a boy desires, whether from slender means or from any other reason, to betake himself to the Scotch or German universities, or to the medical schools of London or the continent, one does not see why he should not use the charity in this way, which may be more beneficial to himself, and is not less so to the school. The attractions of the old universities are in themselves too great to need external protection.

Paucity or poverty of the exhibitions.

2. Sometimes exhibitions are almost useless from their rarity. At Kirkham, for instance, there is but one exhibition, and this falls vacant but once in four years. Its effect in the school generally, in raising its tone and stimulating the scholars is therefore not worth regarding. And it is the merest chance if the money is well applied on the one occasion in the four years when an appointment is made. In a small school real ability must be rare. Very likely there is no talented boy in the highest class to take the exhibition when it falls, or if there is, he has been kept dawdling about waiting for it at the school for a year or two longer than he ought otherwise to have remained. Two exhibitions of 40*l.*, one to be given every second year, would therefore be better. Again, the two exhibitions at Bury are almost useless from their small amount; 30*l.* per annum goes very little towards a university education, whose average cost—at least in Oxford—is not less than 170*l.* per annum.* It would be necessary to double or treble these to make them of much service, as it would be necessary to make the Kirkham exhibition come more frequently. But to do this would require an expenditure of money which the funds cannot afford. Some other expedient must therefore be resorted to.

Exhibitions wasted when confined to small schools.

3. The object for which exhibtions are supposed to exist is to send not any chance boy, but a boy of talents and promise, to complete his education at the University. It is generally agreed that in small schools, even under the best arrangements, this object is not frequently attained. In Oxford, the tutors of colleges constantly find exhibitioners from the lesser grammar schools among the worst prepared and least interesting of their undergraduates. No one would have thought them worth sending to the University had not the exhibition been there to tempt their father to send them upon it. It is only by procuring a larger competition that deserving candidates can be found, and this the school, by itself, cannot be made to furnish. Again, it is admitted that exhibitions at such a place as Blackrod are absolutely useless. The solution

* Probably most undergraduates spend more than this sum, though in some colleges a man economically disposed may get on with less.

of both these difficulties seems to be in a system of grouping. Some six or eight schools, two or three of whom have exhibitions, might, for this purpose only, be united as an elective district. For instance, Bolton, Bury, Rochdale, Oldham, and Newchurch, all lying close to one another in the south-east of the county, might be formed into one such group; Wigan, Warrington, Ormskirk, Leigh, Upholland, Widnes, into another; Preston, Blackburn, Burnley, Colne, Clitheroe, Kirkham, into a third. Hawkshead and Cartmel belong naturally to Westmoreland rather than to Lancashire.* A common fund might be formed, to which the schools not possessing exhibitions could, if it were found necessary, make some contribution. Thus there would be money enough to create say four exhibitions of 60*l.* per annum. One of these would then be annually given away, after an examination held by some independent persons, candidates being admitted to compete from all the six or eight contributory schools. The masters and scholars in each of these places would be stimulated by the honourable rivalry; and the boy chosen from among them all could hardly fail to be better than the run of those who now go up from the single schools, for the very publicity of the thing would give people an interest in it, and take boys of talent to the University who might otherwise have entered offices at 14. Schemes of this sort, with more or less of variety in their details, have been discussed in Lancashire lately, and although some local opposition might be raised to them, the general benefit would probably be plain enough to make them in the end accepted. Without some such arrangement many of the exhibition endowments which now exist must continue to be useless as ever, or, as at Blackrod, deleterious.

Remedy proposed.

Grouping.

Respecting the mode of appointing to the exhibition there is very little to report. In Manchester, Lancaster, Preston and Clitheroe, as well as in the new foundation schools of Rossall and Liverpool College (both of which possess exhibitions), an examination is held by some person unconnected with the school, and the award made by him. In other cases the difficulty is to get any one to take the exhibition, and neither trustees nor master scrutinize very closely the qualifications of a candidate. The college to which he proceeds may reject him at matriculation, but that is the only warrant of his ability to profit by an university education. It is a scanty one.†

Mode of choosing exhibitioners.

IV.—Charitable Applications.

Another mode in which the benefit of the endowment is given directly to the scholars is of what may be called a charitable rather than a strictly educational nature, and as such requires only a pas-

Application of endowments to purposes strictly charitable: food, clothing, lodging.

* I omit the Manchester and Lancaster grammar schools, because at present they are prosperous enough to furnish a continual supply of candidates each from its own scholars. Liverpool has no endowed grammar school.

† This would be the place to treat of school scholarships (i.e., exhibitions held at the school itself); but these are so few in Lancashire and of so little moment that it seems scarcely necessary to occupy space in describing them.

sing notice. I mean the provision of food and clothing for the scholars—or a part of them—and the putting them out to apprentice when they quit school. There is a fair proportion of such foundations in Lancashire, although none on a grand scale. Being almost all of them foundations for the poor, and not attached to classical schools, they did not fall within the scope of the inquiry which you desired me to conduct. The grammar schools of the county are all, strictly speaking, day-schools, and when the master receives boarders he does it on his own account; the boarding school is, in fact, virtually a private adventure school. In some few of the endowed grammar schools, especially in rural districts, money is expended on buying coats and caps for it may be half-a-dozen boys, or in paying their fees when apprenticed to some trade. The former kind of charity—of which Hawkshead supplies a good example—I found generally carried out in conformity with the directions of the founders or of the scheme, where such existed. It was too small to be worth jobbing; and indeed no person above the need of it was at all likely to think of making application.

Apprentice charities.

Apprentice gifts seemed to have mostly fallen into disuse, along with the practice of apprenticing itself, and the funds were either swallowed up in the general school income, or were left to accumulate for want of power to divert them. Such a power the trustees expressed themselves anxious to have: the amount was too small to make it worth their while to obtain at considerable cost the requisite legal authority for the purpose, and for this, as well as for other cognate matters, they desired to see the powers of the Charity Commission enlarged.

V.—Application to the External Needs of a School.

Application of endowments to the external requirements of a school.

A third method of applying endowment funds, is to supply the external and visible wants of a school, its buildings, furniture, and playground, its materials and apparatus. Here there is a great diversity between the practice of different schools. Sometimes in poor country places, lesson and copy-books, as well as Bibles and Prayer-books, are given to the children, or kept in the school for their use. Sometimes they procure these for themselves, and pay a trifling sum for the use of ink and slates. In one place the endowment pays for the fuel, in another the master, in a third the pupils. The question, which is the best system, is too much one of details to be discussed to any profit here; it may be sufficient to remark,

Gifts of books to scholars.

Payments for materials and firing.

(1.) That the multiplication of small charges upon the scholars is troublesome to the teacher and vexatious to the parents.

(2.) That it is not fair to lay upon the master the burden of providing firing and paper, since it gives him a motive for doing these things in a niggardly way. It is desirable that children should learn neatness by using paper more and the slate less than they now do; it is well that there should be no stint of fuel.

Upon this point I can speak feelingly, having once been nearly frozen to death in a school where the fire came out of the master's pocket.

(3) That, except in cases of real poverty, it is much better for the children to have books of their own, which they carry back home with them, than to use those kept for them in the school.

The conclusion, therefore, would seem to be that firing, pens, ink, and paper should be paid for by the trustees, taking care, of course, that no more is allowed the master than he can show to have been necessary, while school-books are either bought and kept by the scholars themselves, or, in case of poverty, given over to them in full ownership by the trustees. It is, I need hardly say, only in the case of small and poor schools that most of these questions are of practical importance, although the principles apply to schools of a higher grade.

Provision of the apparatus of teaching.

Especially for scientific experiments.

With regard to apparatus, by which I mean globes, maps, illustrative drawings, historical charts, and the instruments and materials required for experiments in physics or chemistry, the matter becomes more serious. To procure these involves no slight expense, and it is an expense which the master, to whom they are useless except for the purposes of teaching, ought not to be required to incur. They belong to the school and not to him, and the school ought to provide them. Trustees, especially when themselves educated under the ancient régime, are seldom alive to the value—indeed the necessity, of such an apparatus, without which the teaching of geography, and of any branch of natural science, is worse than useless. They don't see why the schoolmaster can't get on without all these new-fangled inventions, and if they give a grant, give it grudgingly. The schoolmaster himself must be an enthusiastic or a conscientious man to press for what will in the end come off his own salary. Hence it happens that there are exceedingly few among the endowed schools where there is an adequate provision even of such things as maps and globes,—that is to say, a provision which would be thought adequate in a good private school. The want of philosophical and chemical apparatus strikes one less, because natural science is so seldom taught systematically, but if it is to be seriously introduced into the curriculum, trustees must be prepared to go to some little expense in providing instruments, and would do well to set apart in future a small annual sum to repair and replace them. There is, of course, the alternative of charging the pupils or the master with them, but the objections to the latter course are obvious, while as to the former it is urged, and urged with much force, that whatever the pupil pays (except the bare cost of his materials) had better go direct to the master. It is the peculiar and proper function of an endowment to meet fixed expenses, and do both for master and pupil what they are likely to neglect if left to themselves. In this respect, if in any respect, schools publicly subsidized ought to show themselves superior to those conducted by private persons as a means of livelihood. The complaint most frequently made against endowments is, that by giving a

Propriety of using endowment funds to

meet fixed expenses.

permanent and unchanging stipend they remove the natural stimulus to exertion. It is always well, therefore, to expend a part of this fixed income in a manner which must do good and cannot do harm, and to permit whatever the master's labour earns to be handed over to himself alone. For the same reason, and also because their public character makes it in a manner incumbent on them, I heard it frequently urged that the funds of endowed schools should be applied, far more than they are, to the erection of spacious and handsome buildings, and to the fitting up of the rooms in a manner which would not only promote the comfort of the teacher, but in some measure tone down the roughness and refine the manners of the boys. Money spent in building, unless it goes in mere ornament, can hardly fail to be spent well. And this is unfortunately more than can be said for a great deal of the money that now goes in paying fixed salaries to teachers.

VI.—Other Miscellaneous Applications.

Other modes of applying the endowments.

Retiring allowances.

There remain two other modes of applying these funds, with regard to which a word may suffice. One is in providing retiring allowances for teachers who have laboured on till old age or weakness makes it fit that they should be superseded. In scarcely any, if indeed in any school, have I found any regular provision of this kind, although it is one of the most necessary that can be thought of. The most elaborate provisions for a school are useless if the teacher be not efficient, and few teachers are efficient after sixty or sixty-five. Let the trustees have never so unlimited a power of dismissal they cannot turn off at that age a man who has served them well during the best years of his life, and has been able to save little enough from his hard-won earnings. He is therefore kept on, and the school suffers. Among the cases of this kind which I met with I may be permitted to speak particularly of one. In a country hamlet—one of the prettiest and most secluded nooks in Lancashire—I found an old schoolmaster who had been there some thirty years. All the villagers had been taught by him as boys and counselled by him when they grew to be men. He had witnessed their marriages and made their wills; had been a zealous preacher of temperance, and done much by example as well as precept to keep the people from the public-house. They respected him as an author, for he had published a book, a copy of which he gave me, a book full of quiet good sense put in a simple way. But it was impossible to praise the school; the children knew little, and were too heavy to answer what they knew. I asked him whether the governors could do anything to improve the school and give it a little more life, wishing to touch the matter gently. He answered at once, "They should pension me off; I am getting far too old for my work." He was quite right, but there were no means of doing it, except by diminishing the income of his successor. And this is an expedient which, since it deters good candidates, is almost certain to injure a school.

Much as money for retiring allowances is needed, it is sometimes impossible for the ordinary revenue of a school to provide it. There is, therefore, ground for considering whether this is not a matter in which some combination of the schools of a district would be desirable; a common fund being formed out of which such pensions might from time to time, of course after careful scrutiny, be granted. And if any diversion of charitable funds were permissible, no better nor more truly charitable mode than this could be found of applying the money now spent in doles, and some part at least of that which goes to almshouses. The utility of the latter I found frequently doubted; the former are almost universally condemned.

Annual dinner of the trustees.

The other application is in paying for the dinner of the trustees at their annual meeting and audit. It is a purpose which evidently admits of abuse, and one which the Charity Commission have therefore set their faces against. They have not, however, been altogether successful, for I found the custom prevailing in several places, and justified as the only means of getting the trustees together, and as producing a cordial feeling between masters and trustees, and a flow of generous sentiment towards the school on the part of all the guests. If these happy results are really attained, 10*l.* or 15*l.* is perhaps not too great a price to pay for them.

Views entertained respecting Endowments generally.

Opinions of Lancashire people respecting the best methods of applying the funds of endowed schools.

Having taken frequent occasion to inquire, in the course of my visits to the endowed schools, the convictions of trustees and of other persons whose knowledge and experience qualified them to form an opinion respecting the best mode of applying endowments to educational purposes, it may be well to state to you the views which I found most generally entertained. There are, it is evident, two things to be mainly regarded in forming and expressing an opinion on the subject—the positive good which an endowment may do, and its liability to perversion or abuse.

School buildings.

(*a.*) The point on which the most general agreement prevailed was as to the value in both respects of good school buildings. Some people went so far as to say that the best schools were those in which, the house and land being held rent free, no money payments whatever were made to the masters. It is better, they said, to let the laws of supply and demand govern the teaching, but spacious rooms and a playground, since they involve a large outlay at starting, are things which we cannot expect private enterprise to supply.

Stipend to masters.

(*b.*) A few rigid economists excepted, my informants held that it is wise, and in the present state of education, all but necessary, to subsidize schools by grants of money to the teachers. Good teaching, they said, is not appreciated by the great bulk of parents; they are, therefore, unwilling to pay a sufficient price for it, and we must try by means of endowments to give their children a better education than they want to have. As the school is the

schoolmaster, whatever helps us to get a good schoolmaster is of the highest value. To ensure his continuing good, however, his income must be made to depend upon his services. The old plan, therefore, of paying him by a fixed salary is ruinous; fees must be added, even if a salary be retained. Whether the salary should be retained as fixed, or paid according to the number of boys in the school, and what proportion, if fixed, it should bear to the fluctuating income for fees, were questions on which the greatest variety of opinion prevailed. There was on the whole a preponderating consensus in favour of letting some part at least be fixed.

Exhibitions.

(*c.*) The utility of exhibitions to the universities was generally admitted in the abstract. Instances were quoted in which illustrious men had been raised from obscurity by them (in Lonsdale, for instance, people dwelt upon the case of the late Master of Trinity who went to Cambridge on an exhibition from Heversham School). Schoolmasters themselves appeared to value highly the sort of connexion which they were thus enabled to maintain with the University, and which, they said, added dignity to the school, and stimulated the exertions of teacher and pupil. It must be added, however, that in some places I heard the exhibitions declared useless, and wishes were expressed that they could be converted into scholarships to be held at the school, or be thrown into its general funds.

Scholarships and prizes.

(*d.*) Schoolmasters, and to some extent trustees also, enlarged upon the value of prizes, and thought that a separate fund should be set apart to provide them. And many, as has been already stated, expressed a wish to see scholarships founded, to be competed for, some at entrance, others by pupils in the school. But this view seemed to have been rather formed *à priori* than gained from observations made upon the working of such a system.

Minor Applications.

(*e.*) The payment of regular annual examiners, and the provision of a library were often urged as proper objects for a grant from the endowment; and, generally speaking, the idea prevailed that it was upon these extraneous and collateral objects that money might more safely be spent than in direct salaries, supposing of course that the collateral objects are in themselves valuable.

D. The Buildings of the Endowed Schools.

The Lancashire towns in general.

The Lancashire towns, as everybody knows, are not the most beautiful in England; they bear all the marks of having been built in haste and built with the sternest practical purpose. What with smoke and mud, with irregular streets and polluted streams, anything more hideous than Bolton or Warrington, for instance, can hardly be found in Europe. In spite, however, of the general air of ugliness, the public buildings are seldom mean, and even the mills and the warehouses, as well as the private houses of the richer people, are spacious, solid, and comfortable. Of late years, indeed, there has been in many places what may be called an architectural revival. Handsome new churches are to be seen rising everywhere,

Their public buildings.

some of the finest being those built by the Roman Catholics. The new town halls of Preston and Rochdale, the new Exchange of Blackburn, the Assize Courts and the superb warehouses which adorn Manchester herself, all witness to the public spirit, the liberality, and the taste of Lancashire people. Only one class of buildings remains almost uniformly mean, confined, unsuited to their purpose, and these buildings are the Grammar Schools. Out of some 60 or 70 there are but two which, both in point of elegance and commodiousness, can be pronounced altogether satisfactory. Those two —the schools of Preston and Lancaster—have been built mainly by subscriptions, and are managed by Town Councils. Almost equally convenient, but much less handsome, is the Bury school. Two or three other among the town schools (Rochdale, for instance, and Warrington) may pass muster as sufficiently neat and quite large enough for the present number of pupils, but the remainder are old, ugly, ill-ventilated, in every way offensive. Of the numerous country schools there is hardly one which its trustees ought not to feel ashamed of; many which the Committee of Council would altogether refuse, upon this ground alone, to admit to a share in their grant.

Their grammar schools.

The faults that may be charged in the existings buildings are of various kinds. I will briefly touch on some of the most conspicuous.

Faults of these buildings.

1. They are, as a rule, ugly without and dingy within; ugly and dingy to a degree which not even a photograph could faithfully represent. Externally, they are plain oblong structures, with low, almost square, sometimes heavily mullioned windows, occasionally a small porch in the middle, and a bit of bare ground in front enclosed by the stone palisade so common in the northern counties. Their material is either plain brick, or more often the millstone grit or coal sandstone of the district, originally grey, but now turned almost black by damp and smoke and age. The interior is even more repulsive; the roof is low, and the small windows admit a feeble light. The walls are mostly whitewashed, or covered with a wash which once was white, but is now a grimy brown. Bolton, Wigan, and Oldham are cases in point among the schools in the larger towns, Whalley, Middleton, Prescot, Ashton-in-Makerfield, and Upholland, among those in places of less consequence.

Their ugliness.

The desks and benches are old, clumsy, inconvenient. There is everywhere an air of discomfort and neglect.

2. It is seldom that they have any proper means of maintaining an equable temperature. The fireplace is usually at one end—the upper end where the teacher's desk is placed—of a longish room; and the master is fried while the boys are frozen. The floor is more frequently of stone than of wood—I have even seen it of mud, interspersed with puddles—and thus the maximum of noise and the minimum of heat is secured.

Extremes of heat and cold.

3. The room is generally dirty and untidy. There is often no porch where the children may clean their feet and hang up their caps or coats; hence they bring the mud of the street into the room, and have to bestow their caps in corners, windowsills, or

Dirt and confusion.

wherever they can find a place. Often, too, there is neither cellar nor outhouse, and the coals are heaped up in the corner of the room beside the open fireplace which no fender protects in front.

Want of proper ventilation.

4. The faults which meet the eye, however, are very far from being the worst to be encountered in these schools: it is another sense which really suffers, and suffers more than can well be described. Those who built such rooms must either have meant them for a far smaller number of children than use them now, or else have been wholly ignorant not merely of the laws of health, but of the simplest conditions of physical comfort. The school generally consists of an upper and an under room. In both, but especially in the former (which is the more crowded), the ceilings are generally low; the windows small and few. Many have windows which do not open; in others they are not opened from fear of the violent thorough draughts which would ensue. The result must be felt to be understood. I will give some instances.

Instances.

Burnley.

The grammar school at Burnley, one of the greatest of the newer manufacturing towns, is attended by from 40 to 50 boys. The classes are usually taught on the ground floor, in a room about 35 feet in length by 18 wide and 8 high.* There is little attempt at ventilation, and the darkness is such that the school work can hardly go on in winter afternoons. The play-ground is only a scrap of ground on one side the school.

Rivington.

At Rivington there is a grammar school of considerable importance and large revenues. On the ground floor are two rooms. One of them is 28 feet long by 20 broad by 9 high, and in it from 30 to 40 or 50 children are taught. The other is 23 feet by 18 by 9, and in it as many as 60 or 70 children are sometimes taught. It has four windows, which do open, but in spite of this the air was exceedingly foul. The income of the school exceeds its present needs, yet I did not hear that there had been any talk of building a new room.

Newchurch-in-Rossendale.

Newchurch-in-Rossendale, a small town in a thickly peopled manufacturing district, possesses a grammar school of more modest but still respectable pretensions. It is taught in an upper room, 30 feet by 20 by $8\frac{1}{2}$, and in the room there are often 48 children. The ventilation is very imperfect.

Leigh.

Leigh grammar school stands in a manufacturing town of 10,621 inhabitants. The building is placed on the very edge of the churchyard, and has two rooms, in the upper of which the grammar school is taught, in the lower an elementary school. The cubical contents of the upper room are 3,147 cubic feet, and in this room on the day of my visit there were 32 boys; that is to say, less than 100 cubic feet per boy. The number of boys is sometimes greater.

Pilling Lane.

At Pilling Lower End, in the township of Preesall and parish of Lancaster, there is a country school with an endowment of

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* As in some cases I had no better means of measuring the dimensions of rooms than by stepping them, I cannot vouch for the precise accuracy of those which are stated in the text. Substantially, however, they are correct.

nearly 100*l.* a year. It is built of mud, strengthened by a few sticks, with a course or two of stones at the bottom. Inside there is one room 15 feet long by 13½ wide by 6¾ high to the top of the vertical wall on which the slanting rafters rest. The floor is rough, composed of round stones imbedded in clay, in which here and there is a small pool of water. There are three small windows. I found 15 children in this room at the time of my visit; the closeness and damp earthy smell were intolerable. In winter there are from 30 to 40. It was doubtful whether there were any legal trustees, though several gentlemen in the neighbourhood claimed the right to act as such.

Now the minimum quantity of air allowed for the dormitories of soldiers is 600 cubic feet per man. And Dr. Carpenter says, "Experience seem to have fixed 800 cubic feet as the minimun that can safely be assigned, except where extraordinary provisions are in force for the constant renewal of the air by ventilation."

Taking, however, the average of these four schools, we have but 90 or 100 cubic feet per boy. A boy, it is true, consumes rather less air than a full-grown man, but on the other hand a boy's constitution is more liable than a man's to suffer from the habitual breathing of carbonic acid gas. The boys do not usually remain in the school-room more than three hours at a time, but while they are in there is frequently no renewal of the air by ventilation.

These figures, however, will not enable you to realize,—nothing short of a personal inspection could,—the disgusting closeness and foulness of these small rooms packed full of boys. In towns it is bad enough, but in country places, where a good deal of clay comes in upon boots and trousers, and where the standard of personal cleanliness is not high, the result is sometimes scarcely endurable. Entering such a school, to spend an hour or two in it, I always made up my mind to a headache, and was only too happy when it was possible, by opening doors and windows, to run the risk of a catching a cold instead.*

Sites of the schools often unsuitable.

5. The badness of the buildings themselves is but one of many evils under which these schools labour. They are sometimes badly situated, in an unhealthy place, or one ill adapted to the wants of the inhabitants. Thus at Manchester the grammar school stands in a disagreeable lane, and fronts mean houses. The rooms are in two buildings, lying some little way apart. Public-houses are all round, and I have myself seen drunken men staggering past the school-door. Thus at Leigh, Colne, Leyland, and Chorley, the school is placed on the very edge of the churchyard, and the boys have no other place for play. Oldham Grammar School, however, enjoys in this respect, as in so many others, a bad pre-eminence. It stands in a filthy lane inhabited by the lowest of the Irish settlers, and is enclosed on two sides by a slaughter-yard.

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* I found a case in Wales—the old grammar school, now used as a girls' school, at Rhayader in Radnorshire—even worse than any of the preceding. The room, a bare and wretched one, is 25 feet long by 15 wide by (about) 10 high. The cubic contents are thus 3,750 feet; and in this space there are frequently, as I was told by the mistress, 90 children or more. This gives about 42 cubic feet of air for each child.

Want of playground accommodation.

6. Furthermore, there is a great want of proper playgrounds for the boys—a matter whose importance (even in the case of day schools), those who are practically acquainted with education will not fail to place very high. In some cases there is no ground for play, except the churchyard or the side of the public road; in others that which exists is not sufficient for the requirements of the school. It is right, however, to add that in this respect things are mending. Trustees have begun to recognize the importance of a playground, not only to the health, but also to the moral tone and public spirit of the scholars, and where there has been no provision made, masters have in some cases themselves procured pieces of land to use for cricket or other sports. This, however, has been chiefly done with a view to the advantage of boarders, and the day-boys are sometimes excluded from it. There is, you will not be surprised to hear, in many cases a want or an insufficient provision of those offices and out-buildings with which a school ought to be supplied. And it is seldom, even in the more important of the town grammar schools, that any attempt has been made to provide a covered playground or a gymnastic apparatus, such as a private school of any pretensions to gentility could hardly venture to dispense with. Still this is a minor matter; the crying evil of the school buildings is their want of space and ventilation—a want which I should have thought fatal to health and longevity if I had not found schoolmasters who had taught in such rooms for thirty years or more. Fatal it certainly is to briskness and mental activity; nor could one hesitate to attribute a great deal of the stupidity and heavy listlessness displayed by the boys when examined orally, the lack of youthful vivacity in their countenances and in the movements of their bodies, to the fœtid and stupefying atmosphere they had so long been breathing.

Out-buildings and gymnasiums.

Causes of the neglect to provide proper accommodation.

To state and denounce the evil is easier than to account for the apathy with which it has been and is commonly regarded. The reason is probably to be sought in the difficulty which trustees feel in appropriating any of the regular income of the school to what appears an occasional purpose. They have seldom any balance in hand, which would go far towards the erection of a new schoolhouse; they have seldom the power to diminish the annual income of the master in order to raise a building fund, and even when they have it, are naturally unwilling to injure him by exercising it. In order to sell any part of the school property they must apply for leave to the Charity Commission or the Court of Chancery, and this they are shy of doing, fearing to get further entangled in law expenses, and to give the central authority a right to interfere with what they look upon as their private affair. They do not often come near the school, probably have never spent two continuous hours within its walls, so that they don't realize its discomfort and unhealthiness. As to its external look, they remember it always the same, and though conscious that it does them no credit, yet think it may be let alone for some time longer, and console themselves with the reflection that after all it is the

Apathy of trustees.

teaching, and not brick and mortar, that make a good school. On the other hand, the master, who ought to feel most keenly the disadvantages of the place where he works six hours a day, gets used to it after awhile, and though desiring a new room, can hardly be expected to sacrifice a considerable part of his hard-won salary for the sake of posterity. The obvious course is to raise a subscription, and it is in this way that almost all the new grammar schools have been built. There is no place where money is more plentiful or more liberally given to public objects than in Lancashire. But in the country districts there are very few people who can be asked to subscribe, and the clergyman, on whom the collection of the money as a matter of course devolves, is obliged to make the national school his first concern, and has had to give so much to it himself, and to make such frequent calls upon his squire on its behalf that he naturally shrinks from undertaking the same unwelcome duty on behalf of another school—a school, too, which having funds of its own might reasonably be expected to provide for itself. In the manufacturing towns there is no such difficulty in raising money: the only obstacles there are to be found is the fact that the school management has sometimes been kept so much in the hands of a small 'connexion' that the bulk of the citizens know and care little about it, while it is supposed that the Dissenters, resenting their exclusion from the trust, will refuse to contribute to what they have been made to consider a denominational institution.

Apathy of masters.

It must, moreover, be remembered that during the last four years (those preceding 1865) the cotton distress, and the suspension of business which it caused, compelled the postponement of this as well as other projects of public utility—projects which a renewed and perhaps hitherto unequalled prosperity may before long see resumed. Once resumed, they will no doubt be carried through with that energy of which Lancashire men are so justly proud. But it is vain to look for a reconstruction of the buildings without a reorganization of the schools themselves. At present there is not that public interest in their welfare which would lead men to subscribe sums sufficient to bring them up to the mark either in buildings or in any other way. Reforms are called for, not only in the constitution and government of the schools, so as to make them more truly public, but in their instruction and internal management. When once these reforms have been fairly set on foot, it will not be difficult to find money to rebuild and make the external fabrics worthy of their work.

E. Educational Functions and Conduct of the Endowed Schools.

Hitherto the facts which I have had to state respecting endowed schools refer to them in their economical aspect as charitable foundations; those which remain to be mentioned are of a more purely educational nature. Yet even in this branch of the subject, looking at these schools simply as places of instruction, it is surprising how much of a distinctive character they possess; a character less marked indeed than belongs to them in those parts of England

Peculiar character attaching to endowed as compared with private schools.

where they have remained strictly classical, yet strong enough to make it impossible for a stranger to mistake one of them for a private adventure school, or conversely, a private school for an endowed.

Original similarity of the endowed schools.

Despite this general similarity, there are, as might be expected, very great differences between the endowed schools of a county so large, and including districts in which the social and industrial state of the people is so diversified. When these schools were founded in the 16th and 17th centuries, the same or nearly the same system prevailed in all of them.* There was but one sort of education recognized, and that was given equally to all who entered the schoolroom. No school (I speak, of course, of Lancashire only) was intended to have a larger staff than a master and an usher. Boarding schools—unless under the form of charities—were unknown. There was but one recognized religious body to whose ministers any right of interference in educational matters could be entrusted. Within the last two or three hundred years all this has been changed. Around some schools there have arisen great mercantile or manufacturing communities; others have remained as quiet and slow-moving as of old. The revenues of some have been trebled or quadrupled; those of others are stationary. A new system of schools, supported from the public purse, has arisen to withdraw boys of the poorer class from the minor endowed schools, while those of higher pretensions have been exposed to the dangerous competition of the new foundation and proprietary schools, so many of which have lately sprung up in the south and west of England. Thus the endowed schools have become broken up into classes, and we must be prepared to find those which are ranked together as the same by foundation, now wholly unlike in character and object, and needing very different remedies to restore them to health and efficiency.

Effect of recent changes in creating different types among them.

Passing over minor distinctions, these foundation schools of Lancashire may, educationally regarded, be classed under three heads:—

Classes with which the endowed schools may be divided as respects the education given in them.

A[1]. Schools giving, or professing to give, a complete and comprehensive education, sufficient to enable a boy to proceed to the Universities, or compete with success for appointments in the Civil Service.

B[1]. Schools giving an 'English' or 'commercial' education, with or without a dash of Latin and geometry.

C[1]. Schools giving what is in the main an elementary education; that is to say, reading, writing, arithmetic, and spelling, but generally adding to it more or less of the so-called higher subjects, history, geography, and English grammar, possibly a little book-keeping and mensuration, and to one or two boys algebra and the Latin accidence.

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* As has already been said, the practice was for boys from a distance to lodge in farmhouses round about the school, as is still done to some slight extent at Rivington and Hawkshead, and to a considerable extent at the once famous school of Ystraed Meurig in Cardiganshire.

So at Middleton, Dean Nowell directed that the master should live in a small room at one end of the school—a sort of prophet's chamber, and the usher similarly in another.

These classes correspond generally, though not quite exactly, with those given above (p. 429). The classical or university schools are all, with the exception of Clitheroe,* situated in large towns. There are, however, several of the town schools whose teaching would not fit a boy to proceed to the University, and similarly several schools in country villages giving a commercial, and even, as in Penwortham and Winwick, a partially classical education. In each class there is, of course, every variety of goodness or badness; the quality of a school depending far more on the accidental presence of a vigorous or a slothful teacher than on the value of its endowment or the requirements of the neighbourhood in which it is placed. I propose, in describing the state of these three sets of schools to speak in succession of their social rank and function, their internal organization, and the character of the instruction which they give.

I.—Social Position of the Endowed Schools.

Endowed schools not intended for the benefit of any one class.

It has already been stated that so far as the records make it possible to form any judgment, there seems no ground for believing that these foundations were designed expressly or exclusively for the poor. Every class in the community was meant to use them, and they have in this respect successfully preserved the character which the founders desired to give. On either side of them two new systems of schools have arisen, each fitted only for a class: they remaining in the middle have maintained, more effectively than any other institution, the protest against class education. The Privy Council schools are avowedly schools for the poor; the "public" schools, including under this term such new foundations as Clifton, Marlborough, and Cheltenham, are practically schools for the rich; the old grammar schools are still accessible to the one and capable of being useful to the other. This is particularly the case with those which belong to the classes specified above (p. 429) as A and B, the schools in the towns. They are chiefly filled by the sons of shopkeepers, yet there is withal a fair sprinkling of artizans on the one hand, and of professional men, merchants, and wealthy manufacturers on the other. When men dwell upon the evils which their public character, with its necessary fixity of system and its liability to abuse has given rise to, this merit—their free and universal accessibility—should not be forgotten. They have not succumbed to the demon of gentility who reigns in private schools. An analysis of the return made as to the occupation of the parents of day scholars in twelve typical schools gives the following results:

	A.	B.	C.		A.	B.	C.
Manchester - -	·65	·3	·05	Great Crosby -	·4	·3	·3
Preston - -	·6	·4		Clitheroe - -		1·0	
Blackburn - -	·5	·5		Ormskirk - -	·3	·6	·1
Bolton - - -	·2	·8		Hawkshead - -		·83	·17
Warrington - -	·2	·75	·05	Middleton - -	·3 (?)	·5	·2
Bury - - -	·5	·5		Kirkham - -	·25	·4	·35

* I may perhaps add, Hawkshead.

With these results such observations as I was able to make personally very nearly agree. In most schools there were a few boys in corduroys; in many there were also some whose parents could have afforded to send them to Eton. Upon the whole, however, the tendency of the grammar schools is to attract the better people of the town, and the sons of the small shopkeepers resort rather to private adventure schools. This is certainly the case in Preston, Bury, Warrington, and Lancaster, while in Bolton, Ulverston, and Oldham the reverse holds true. Almost everywhere the grammar schoolmaster is held in respect, as one of the institutions of the town: the grammar school boys are proud of their square caps, and retain in after life an attachment to the place of their education, of which several gratifying instances were brought to my knowledge.

Usually the fashionable school of the town.

Satisfactory as this may seem, it cannot be denied that in this respect things are going backwards, and that the social difficulty, as people call it, is becoming every day a more serious obstacle to the welfare of these schools. The trustees are generally men of wealth and standing in the town, from 40 to 70 years of age. These men and the generation to which they belong were most of them educated at the grammar school, along with the sons of tradespeople. But their sons are not, as a rule, to be found there now. They are in private boarding schools, or at Rossall, Haileybury, or Clifton—perhaps at Rugby or Harrow. So, too, in country places, schools where half a century ago the sons of the squire and the clergyman were to be seen, are now left to be filled by the sons of the ploughman. The chief causes of this change are no doubt to be sought in the progress of society itself, in the greater separation of classes, and the increased facility of communication between place and place, making people independent of the local school. But something must be attributed to the state of neglect into which many schools have been allowed to fall; and there is reason to hope that a renewal of vigour and efficiency would not even now come too late to recover much of the old social prestige. The value of such prestige in enabling them to procure better masters and resist the views of narrow-minded parents can hardly be overrated.

But less so than formerly.

II.—Organization.

Economists have frequently descanted on the evil tendency of educational endowments to injure and depress the institution they were meant to benefit by maintaining in them obsolete rules and usages, and binding down in the trammels of precedent those who should above all others be ready to advance in the van of a progressive society. In the one point, with regard to which these charges have been and are most heavily pressed—the exclusive devotion of grammar schools to classics—the Lancashire schools are comparatively blameless. But there are other matters in which an adherence to ancient custom seems to have wrought much evil, and of two of these I propose to speak: the division of the school into two distinct sections, and the practice, naturally springing out of

Antiquated arrangements still in use.

this division, but often maintained even where it has disappeared, of leaving the younger children to the sole charge of assistant masters.

In more than one-fourth out of the whole number of schools the original foundation was for a Ludimagister and an Hypodidascalus or usher. The duty of the former, as appears by an examination of the original statutes, was to instruct the elder boys in Latin, Greek, and theology; while the latter taught the younger ones reading and the Latin accidence, and also, in the case of more recent foundations, writing* and arithmetic. Each teacher seems to have had a certain number of boys allotted to him, and to have undertaken the entire management of these. Whether they were to be taught in the same room is not specified; but as not many schoolhouses dating from that time have two or more apartments, it is probable that this was often the case. As to the size of the classes we have but little testimony. The statutes of Rivington, made in A.D. 1566, say, "The master and usher shall divide their scholars into forms more or fewer, as the number of them shall require, and as they be able to teach and the scholars have wits to learn. Commonly either of them may teach three forms, and 10 or 12 in every form; and those must be in one form that be of like forwardness in learning and capacity to understand that that is taught. If the number of pettys that learn to read be more than the usher can well teach, some of the elders and scholars by course may be appointed by the master and governors to help him." Three years after the opening of this school there were 116 scholars studying in it.

Nature of the original foundations.

Division of the school between master and usher.

Probably all lessons were learnt in the school instead of at home, so that while some were sitting apart at preparation others were directly under the hands—or rather under the rod—of the teacher. In the better schools this practice is well nigh extinct; lessons are now prepared at home, although exercises and themes may sometimes be written in school. But in many places the division into two schools under the head and the assistant master continues. Sometimes these schools are in separate buildings, as at Hawkshead (under the scheme established by the Charity Commission in A.D. 1863); sometimes in different rooms, as at Bury, Bolton, Rivington, Kirkham, Leigh, and Prescot; sometimes the distinction is little more than that of higher and lower classes, taught in the same room, as at Blackburn and Warrington. This system is frequently defended as the only means of meeting the difficulty which presses most heavily on the town grammar schools—that of giving at the same time and with the same staff of masters a classical and a commercial education. But as a matter of fact it generally exists as a relic of the old state of things, when classics were thought

Still exists in some places; Hawkshead, Bury, &c.

* In early times boys were left to pick up writing pretty much as they could. Thus the statutes of Rivington (A.D. 1566) say: "The scholars shall have pen, ink, and "paper book, that they may write such things in it as they hear taught, to be "appointed for them to do; and that they may the better do it the master and usher "shall appoint them that cannot write every day one hour to learn to fashion their "letters in, until they can do it something seemly." A century later, in 1666, we find an entry, "Paid ye scrivener for ye boys writinge, 7*s.* 3*d.*," implying that they had by this time begun to employ a writing master.

the only subject worthy of a head-master's attention, and other subjects were therefore relegated to the usher.

Two shapes which it takes.

There are two forms under which it appears. The division of schools may represent little more than a distinction between elementary and more advanced teaching, so that every boy will naturally pass through the lower school into the upper. Each is then a member of single organic whole. Or the two may exist separately, each in itself complete; the boys entering one or other, and remaining in it through their whole course. The evils of this latter system, as I saw it at work, appeared to me serious: they are much less so, though not wholly absent, under the former. I will mention three.

(1.) Its evils and inconveniences.

Social antagonism.

(Clitheroe.)

(1.) Any division of a school by the subjects taught tends to coincide with a social distinction between the scholars, since it is the sons of richer parents who remain longer and read higher. If they have been required in their time to work their way through the lower school, this feeling will have little power. But if boys are admitted, as they are at Clitheroe, into the upper school direct, on the ground, whether overtly expressed or understood, of superior social rank, it is impossible for the pupils in the upper section not to despise and shun those of the lower.

(2.) Waste of teaching power.

(2.) There is a waste of teaching power under an arrangement which instructs separately boys at the same stage of advancement. These schools suffer already from being too small to admit of an effective organization by classes; to divide this small number again is wantonly to double the difficulty. A class of 7 boys is working at fractions in one room under one master, and a second class of 10 is also working at fractions in another room under another master. The school possesses but two, or perhaps three masters in all, so that the rest of the children, or a great part of them are left meantime to their own devices.

(3.) Destruction of head-master's sense of responsibility and undivided government.

(3.) The more a master's sense of responsibility for the whole school is weakened, in the same proportion is the whole school injured. Wherever there is a recognized division, the master is apt to think he does his duty sufficiently in teaching the boys immediately under him, and to forget that as head-master it is his duty to see that the assistants do their work thoroughly, and himself, from time to time at least, to bring his own more trained and vigorous intellect into contact with the impressionable and unformed minds of the younger boys. Good teaching is at least as necessary for them as for the others, and will in the end contribute as much to the success of the school.

Sometimes it is said that the assistant-master would not like to be interfered with. If such are his feelings he is not fit for his place, and it is to be regretted that in some instances the old constitution of the school, and the fact that he is appointed, not by the head-master, but by the governors, should seem to give him an independent position, and to excuse the supineness of the head-master, who sees without correcting the faults of his subordinates.

Whether it may not be necessary sometimes to divide a school into two is another question, to which it will be necessary to

recur. All that I wish to call your attention to here is the impolicy of the manner in which this is now frequently done. Only one instance occurs to me in which the arrangement was working tolerably well. At Hawkshead the lower school is virtually a national school, managed as a distinct institution, except that certain boys are promoted from it to the upper or grammar school, where they receive a free education. Hawkshead.

In the small country schools there is of course no question of the system of a divided school, for there the pupils are all on the same social level, and almost all engaged upon elementary subjects. Here there is often no usher, or if one be found, he has little more to do than teach the alphabet to the younger children.

The bad accommodation on which I have already had occasion to enlarge throws many difficulties in the way of a proper organization of the school according to classes. Often there is but one room, so that all the classes must proceed together in the midst of confusion and uproar, while there is no means of keeping apart those who are engaged on different kinds of work. Often again the second room, whether used by master or usher, is upstairs, approached by an external flight of steps. Thus, one-half the school is practically removed from the head-master's supervision, and a good deal of time is consumed by the boys in going, perhaps through the rain, from one class to another. Obstacles to good organization arising (1) from want of space.

This difficulty is insignificant, however, compared with that which arises from the scanty number of pupils. (2) From small size of the school.

In a later part of this report (p. 757) there is given a Table of the population of some of the chief Lancashire towns, with the number of pupils in their respective grammar schools.

The figures there given show how small, even in towns like Preston and Warrington, where the grammar schools are flourishing, is the ratio borne by their scholars to the whole boy population between the ages of 8 and 16. If there were twice as many boys in each school, its efficiency would be, if not doubled, at least very greatly increased. For not only would the increased fees attract better assistant-masters, but the distribution of the scholars among the teachers would become far easier and work far more smoothly. As things are now, in a school of 50 or 60 many boys must be placed in classes which are either behind or in advance of their stage of progress. In the former case they contract habits of carelessness and indolence. In the latter they despond when they find themselves unable to overtake their fellows, and become thenceforth the dead weight of the class.

The difficulty of classification arising from this cause is greatly aggravated by the imperfect state of preparation in which boys come to school. Some—and those I was told not the best—are from Government schools, some from home teaching, some from ladies' seminaries, some from petty private schools. Many are utterly ignorant, but these, as a schoolmaster once pathetically remarked, are not the worst cases. "I don't mind having a *tabula rasa* given me; it is the unteaching that is the grievous work." Scarce any grammar schools have a preparatory department, so (3) Imperfect preparation of the scholars.

that few boys come (to the schools classed in p. 429 under A and B) under 9 or 10 years of age; many not till 12 or 13. They leave early, staying on an average about two years and a half or three years, so that the teacher has but little time to do all that is expected of him.

Taking all this into account, it is hardly fair to censure the masters of grammar schools—those especially of class B[1]—for the want of method and system which may often be observed among them. The external disadvantages under which their work has to be done are so great that many become wholly discouraged, and do not even exert the care and thought of which they are capable. They have hardly begun to call order out of chaos when the disciplined boys disappear, and a new swarm of children, half taught or not taught at all, is pressed in upon them.

Peculiar difficulties of each class of endowed schools.

These evils, and the defective organization which they cause, are more or less common to all the endowed schools of the country, except a few of the very smallest.* A word may be said in passing on the form they take in each class of schools. In class A[1] (the highest schools), the masters complain chiefly of the difficulty of giving, with their limited staff, two different kinds of education; the mainly commercial, for boys who leave them for an office at 14 or 15, and the mainly classical, for boys intended for professions, or (though these are but few), for the Universities. The number of masters is sufficient to follow out successfully either the one line or the other; but in trying to combine the two, they are afraid of doing neither well. Sometimes they talk of establishing two totally distinct schools, but as each of such schools must be a small one, the remedy might probably be found to aggravate the evil.

Class A[1]. Classical and commercial education.

Class B[1]. Bad preparation of the pupils.

Grammar schools of the second rank (educationally), those classed under B[1], suffer from this cause the less, in that their scholars are almost all designed for mercantile life. If they then sacrifice other subjects to classics, they do it wantonly. It is against the rudeness and want of previous training of the boys who enter them that they have chiefly to contend; a great deal of elementary work has to be gone over again before the neglected mind can be made fit for the higher subjects, and the salaries of assistant-masters are so low, that it is hard to find really good men who will undertake this drudgery.

Class C[1].

The third set of endowed schools (class C[1]) do little but elementary work, and receive boys as soon as—or even before—they can read. Their difficulty is, therefore, different. They are underhanded, and their teachers are frequently ignorant of those devices, familiar to the best of the certificated masters, by which the want of sufficient teaching power may be concealed or avoided. The pupil-teacher system has been scarcely introduced among them, and would be stoutly resisted by the parents, who are hardly persuaded to submit to it in the National and British Schools. The consequence is, that the master, with or without the assistance of some

Inadequate teaching power.

* At Cartmel, for instance, there are but some 30 boys n all, and most of these boarders; at Stand, only 20, most of them the sons of persons of substance: and here, therefore, the difficulty is less felt. Both are efficient schools.

old man or boy, to whom he gives 15*l.* per annum as usher, is quite unable to overtake his work, and must be content to see many children go out into the world on whose dulness he has never been able to make any lasting impression.

Admission boarders into grammar schools.

There is one other question relating to the organization of endowed schools, which it would be necessary to discuss at some length, were it not that Lancashire affords few phenomena that can throw any light upon it. This question has respect to the position of boarders among day scholars in a grammar school. Of the 29 or 30 classical and semi-classical schools in Lancashire, there are only 10 or 12 in which the head-master at this moment receives boarders; and in no more than five of these—the schools of Lancaster, Preston, Clitheroe, Hawkshead, and Cartmel—do the boarders bear any large proportion to the town boys. In one or two others, Kirkham, for instance, boarders are received by the second master, while in country places (like Rivington) the old custom of sending boys to lodge with farmers and attend the school as day pupils still lingers. The comparative freedom which children so placed enjoy, is not found, so far as I could ascertain, to do them any injury.*

Lancaster, Kirkham, &c.

Feelings of the people regarding it.

Having heard much of the objections to the admixture of day boys and boarders, I made particular inquiry in each of the five towns above named, how the system worked.

The answers of the inhabitants sometimes betrayed a little jealousy of the boarders. Looking on the master as placed there for their sole benefit, they were not altogether pleased to see him making large profits, or what they fancied to be large profits, out of children from other places. In Clitheroe, especially, the separation of the school into two division, whereof the upper is chiefly filled by the head-master's boarders, causes some dissatisfaction among the townspeople, who think themselves contemned. Neither here, however, nor in Lancaster, where there are, or lately were, eighty or ninety boarders in the head-master's house, did I hear it insinuated that the day scholars (that is, at Clitheroe, such day-scholars as are admitted to the upper school) were at all neglected for the sake of their more profitable class-fellows. At Preston, Hawkshead, Cartmel, and, indeed, generally wherever boarders are taken, their presence was by all but a few grumblers looked on as a gratifying proof of the schoolmaster's popularity. The benefits which a well-conducted boarding school confers upon a town no one is found to deny directly. It attracts by its more rapid gains abler men than could otherwise be procured. It raises the tone of the whole school by the infusion of boys belonging to the wealthier classes, and some of whom at least are likely to proceed to the University. Thus the day-boys at Lancaster, for instance, get a much better education than their grammar school foundation would of itself have purchased. Against this are to be set the dangers so often dwelt on—the tendency to neglect

Clitheroe.

Benefits which it may confer.

Lancaster.

Alleged dangers.

* This custom still prevails largely in Wales; some account of it may be found in the reports upon the schools at Llandovery, Ystrad Meurig, and Bottwnog.

day scholars, and the difficulty of mixing two dissimilar classes of boys in one school. The former of these is to be feared only where the master wants conscientiousness; the latter where he wants tact and judgment. They are not imaginary dangers, but the control of trustees and the watchfulness of public opinion seem at present to prevent them, and are not likely to let them prevail again as they did in many places prevail some twenty or thirty years ago. The question is very much one of details, to be discussed and decided on the merits of each individual case. Where a grammar school is placed in a town large enough to provide forty day scholars or more, every one must see that its first business is to be a good day school, and give the townspeople the sort of education they want, throwing boarders into the background. It is not, I believe, necessary to forbid boarders—where the school lies in a huge manufacturing town the prohibition is superfluous, for who would send his son to board in Oldham or Bolton?—but they must never divert the head-master's attention from the day scholars, whose requirements ought to govern the style of education in the school. But where, on the other hand, a well-endowed school stands in a small town or village, a different set of considerations come before us. In such a place few boys are likely to seek anything but an elementary education. It is not worth while to waste the endowment on the immediate neighbourhood; the needs of the whole district must be regarded, and if there is a want of good boarding schools for the children of people living in the country round, the school may set itself to meet their case; spacious boarding houses may be erected, and the day scholars, although of course admitted on an equal footing, must be content to take the sort of education which it is found most advisable to provide for the boarders.

Distinction of schools for the town and schools for the district.

Instances. Blackburn.

As examples of this distinction, the cases of Blackburn and Clitheroe may be taken. The population of Blackburn was (in 1861) 63,126, taking the municipal limits; but if we add the increase since that year, and take in all the districts from which boys might and do come daily to and fro on foot to the grammar school, this number might be almost doubled.* A day school can have no finer field set before it, and need desire nothing more than to educate the 600 or 800 boys whom this swarming population would provide. The head-master adds to his income by taking some boarders, and if he can get them, there is no reason why he should not, or why their number should be limited by a rule; for they cannot possibly oust or injure the day scholars.

Clitheroe.

Clitheroe (11½ miles N.E. of Blackburn) had in 1861 a population of 7,000 (the increase since then has been but slight). It stands in a lovely country, on the very verge of the manufacturing district. Some twenty or thirty inhabitants may be found desiring a superior education for their boys, but hardly more; and these would not be enough to employ the masters on so considerable a foundation. South and south-westward there is a densely peopled country, in

* I speak of boys coming on foot, (some of them, as I was told, four miles or more) because some come by railway from Accrington, a distance of 10 miles.

many of whose towns and villages no good day-schools are to be found, though wealthy people abound who wish or ought to wish a really good education for their sons up to 16 or 17. Clitheroe, then, is one of those grammar schools which may fairly be considered as called upon to serve the district as well as the town, and without neglecting the latter to think at least as much of the former.

Number of boarders should be limited.

There is but one point in which positive regulations respecting boarders seems to be needed, and that is a limitation of the number who shall be placed under the charge of any one master. A case came under my notice in which more than one hundred boys had been at one time received to board by the head-master of a grammar school. Although himself possessed of remarkable energy and firmness, this number was too great for his, or for any single man's attention, and the results from time to time were not wholly successful. Some persons of experience told me they thought fifty quite enough to be placed in any one boarding house: others would have recommended an even lower figure.

III.—Instruction.

In speaking of the instruction given in endowed schools it is not meant to anticipate what has to be said in a subsequent part of this Report upon the general character of education in Lancashire schools, the merits of the teaching, and the nature of the methods pursued in it. It is only of the branches of instruction now existing, not of its quality, that a short account must find a place here.

Instruction originally prescribed.

It has already been remarked that the founders of the endowed classical schools prescribed the education which it was their wish to supply in very similar, and usually in very general, words. "Latin," "Latin and Greek authors," "Grammar," "Good authors," "Good learning and piety," these are some of the phrases employed—phrases which seem to represent not a deliberate purpose to advance the classics to the exclusion of other studies, but an acquiescence in a state of things already existing, according to which "grammar" was the principal or only study followed in all schools that deserved the name. These terms of foundation are equally common in secluded country districts, where the great bulk of the people must always have been labourers, and in the towns and cities. Natural and social conditions have, however, been strong enough to overrule the purposes of man, and have now established very different systems of instruction in each of the three classes of schools before described. It is, with one or two trifling exceptions, only in the schools of the great towns that Latin continues to be taught to every scholar, while in the mere country schools it is well nigh extinct. In the schools of intermediate importance again, such as Hawkshead, Kirkham, Leigh, Ulverston, and so forth, classics are still taught, but seldom to any great extent.

Present subjects of instruction.

In another part of this Report will be found Tables showing what are the subjects of instruction in each of the Lancashire endowed schools. Comparing these statistics with those obtained

Place held by the classics.

from private schools, it appears that in the endowed schools 41 per cent. of the scholars are learning Latin, while in those private schools whose returns are sufficiently complete to make it possible to institute the comparison, only 26 per cent. are at Latin. So of Greek—the per-centage, in endowed schools, of boys learning, out of the total number of boys, is 15 per cent.; in private schools, 1 per cent. There are many of the poorer endowed schools (those classed under C^1) where Latin is returned as being taught, but where it is little better than a name, where one may perhaps find two boys plodding away at the accidence, and a third nearly ready, after six months work at his Delectus, to begin the study of Cæsar's Wars in Gaul. For years there has been no regular Latin class, but the shadow is retained because the school is by tradition classical, and the master finds a harmless pleasure in the display of his recondite stores of learning. Even in those of the larger schools where Latin is enforced on every pupil I did not find it pursued with any special energy to the neglect of other subjects, although there is a general impression among parents that it is so pursued. Greek is almost extinct: there being only five or six schools where any proportion of the boys who learn it advance so far as to read the Greek Testament with tolerable ease. In other branches of study there is no conspicuous difference between endowed and other schools, except it be that some of the larger grammar schools have done rather less to introduce the teaching of natural science, and give less relative importance to the modern languages. I saw no reason to believe, however, that the results attained in French and German at the grammar schools were inferior to those of their rivals. The greater attention bestowed on Latin seemed to compensate for the less quantity of time spent upon French.

The rural schools.

These remarks apply chiefly to schools belonging to the two former classes, A^1 and B^1. Those under the remaining head, small schools in country places, give for the most part an education scarcely differing from that of Government schools before the Revised Code. Reading and writing are taught to all the scholars; arithmetic to most of them: a little English grammar, geography and history to the highest class, forming perhaps one fourth or one fifth of the whole number. Besides these subjects, the master, according to his own tastes, teaches the rudiments of mensuration and algebra, on the one hand, or of Latin on the other, to two or three boys whom their parents suffer to remain longer at school. Very seldom does this instruction go far enough, or become thorough enough to have any substantial value.

The methods of instruction employed in these country schools are usually more antiquated and clumsy than those of the National and British schools, their discipline is less systematic, and their school books are often ridiculously old fashioned and incorrect. Otherwise, they are not much unlike other schools of the same social grade. And these very defects seem attributable, not to their being endowed, but rather to their being uninspected schools. Certainly the dames' schools, and other private schools of the same

social rank (so far as such survive), have the like faults to an even greater degree.

Character of the Lancashire grammar schools as compared with those of the West of England.

No accusation has been more frequently brought against the application of charitable funds to educational purposes, than their tendency to perpetuate antiquated methods, and to obstruct the free and natural development of institutions in harmony with the spirit of the time. In particular it has been frequently urged, that it is to this cause that the maintenance of classics as the basis of modern teaching is chiefly done: that these studies are protected by endowments, and would disappear under a free trade system, which should make education a mere matter of supply and demand. Some private schoolmasters are peculiarly fond of levelling this reproach at the foundation grammar schools, contrasting their adherence to the classics with the efforts which they have themselves made to introduce modern subjects, and to give to a boy's studies a practically useful direction. If these charges are deserved anywhere, it is not in Lancashire at the present day. Owing, one must suppose, to the strongly practical spirit of the people, the stringency of the old rules has been almost entirely relaxed, and the education, in most grammar schools, is quite as much commercial as classical. I did not know, or at least did not appreciate, the extent to which this had been done, until I went from Lancashire into the western counties of England. In Shropshire, Worcestershire, and Monmouth, those grammar schools which have not sunk into parish schools, have preserved a distinctively classical character. Latin is taught to every boy, Greek to all who remain long enough in the school; arithmetic and even mathematics are looked upon as subjects of quite inferior importance; modern languages are little attended to; chemistry and physics are scarcely heard of. But in Lancashire, and especially in or near the great towns, the masters have yielded, willingly or unwillingly, to the irresistible current of popular demand They profess, with scarcely an exception, their desire to give an education which shall fit the boys to go to business at 14 or 15. Some of them assured me that no less attention was given to arithmetic, writing, and geography, than to Latin; and although they declared with one voice that a boy made more general progress when he continued to learn Latin, and advanced into Greek,—that such a boy was, in fact, a better arithmetician and a better French scholar than another who had dropped Latin and given the extra time to arithmetic and French alone,—they expressed themselves willing to defer to the wishes of the parents, wherever it could be done without destroying the symmetry of the school arrangements. In short, it may be said that the grammar schools have almost all of them undertaken to give to those who seek it a commercial education. So recently, however, has this change passed on the old foundation schools, that the Lancashire people have not yet had time to understand and enter into the fact, and bring themselves to act accordingly. Had I gone by the general impression of the parents whom I encountered, I should have believed the foundation schools to be little else than places of classical learning,

Introduction of the commercial subjects.

in which nothing was done to fit a boy for his occupation in after life. The extent to which this notion prevails is a serious injury to the grammar schools, for it leads many persons to send their children to some private boarding school instead of to the foundation school of the town. That it is, in almost all cases, a false idea seemed to me to be proved, and that in two ways. Examining the time tables, as they are called, of the endowed schools, and comparing them with those of ten private schools of a similar grade, I find the per-centage of study hours given to arithmetic to be not much greater in the latter. As regards writing, the per-centage of time spent on it is somewhat greater in private schools, but the difference is not considerable. Further, having carefully examined a great number both of private and endowed schools in arithmetic by means of printed papers (some also by oral questioning), I found the average of attainments in grammar schools quite equal to those in private schools, and some of the best papers both in arithmetic and mathematics done by those endowed schools which have least abandoned their classical character.

Tendency to neglect mathematics and despise arithmetic.

The defects which deserve notice in the teaching of the various subjects of instruction are common to endowed and private schools, and will therefore be more properly described in another place. Only one occurs to me which is, if not peculiar to, at least more common in endowed schools—a foolish relic of old-fashioned prejudice. The head-masters of grammar schools are usually classical scholars, and hope to win University distinctions for their schools chiefly by the classical performances of their pupils. They are, therefore, apt to neglect the mathematical part of the teaching, leaving it entirely in the hands of their second-master, who, even if he be a competent mathematician, is not necessarily a competent teacher. If a head-master does not know mathematics, of course he can't teach them; but he may at least see that they are taught with care and on rational methods. Furthermore, not head-masters only, but apparently all University men, have a strange notion that there is something degrading—something commercial, it would seem—in teaching arithmetic. Although there is nothing that better admits of scientific treatment, nothing fitter to evoke the intelligence of the young, they frequently leave it to the writing master, or some other subordinate official, and intimate pretty clearly to the boys the slight esteem in which they hold it.* Thus, although it is not neglected—for that would be perilous to the school—it is not turned to the best account, and accomplishes but little in the way of intellectual discipline.

Lancashire grammar schools, on the whole, not much behind the world.

This one exception made, there seems reason to conclude upon the whole that the foundation schools are not open to the charge of being antiquated and unequal to the needs of the time. Though there is some little tendency to regard classics as a palladium, they do not pursue Latin, and still less Greek, to the exclusion of other

* It is fair to say that one finds this habit much more common, and its results more pernicious, in the grammar schools of the West Midland counties than in those of Lancashire.

branches of study. It would not appear, then, that there is any need for a violent interference, legislative or administrative, with their educational functions. They have adapted themselves to the changed condition of things, not always successfully, it is true, but with a sincere desire to be abreast of the age; and they may safely be left to introduce by and for themselves such further changes as may in process of time become necessary.

IV.—The Religious Difficulty in Endowed Schools.

Methods and forms in which scripture history and doctrinal theology are taught.

There is one branch of instruction to which no reference has hitherto been made, because it seems to require discussion apart from all others. This branch is religion—or, to speak more correctly, the teaching of the facts of Christian history and the elements of dogmatic Christian theology. These subjects enter into the school work in various ways. Most usually they are directly taught, whether from the Bible alone or by catechisms, or by manuals of Scripture history. Sometimes they appear incidentally, and we find nothing but the Bible read, with occasional comments. Sometimes prayers, taken from the Anglican Liturgy or some private collection, are used on opening and closing school. In the case of boarding-schools especially it happens now and then that religious teaching is reserved for Sunday, and on week-days represented only by the reading of some verses from the Bible. Sometimes by the old rules of the foundation the scholars are required to attend church in a body on certain days. Of the quality—educationally considered—of this instruction I shall have to speak again; it is sufficient in this place to state to what extent it exists, and with what feelings it is regarded.

Teaching of the catechism of the Church of England.

It will appear in a reference to the Tables containing the returns made by Lancashire endowed schools, that in the majority of schools a regular dogmatic teaching is provided for by setting the pupils to learn and repeat the catechism of the Church of England. In something less than one half of these the catechism is practically taught to all, although, as I was informed, it would not be enforced against any boy whose parent objected on religious grounds. In one fourth or more of the same whole number the catechism was professed to be taught to Church of England children only, objections raised at some time or another by Nonconformists having been recognized. In some few schools, on the other hand, the learning of the Catechism was made compulsory either by the rules or by the action of the head-master; and in these, therefore, Nonconformists were either excluded, or required, if they came, to permit their children to be instructed from Church of England formularies.

In the schools where the Bible only was read, with or without comments, there was of course no opposition made by Protestant dissenters. In a few, but only a very few cases, something had been said by Roman Catholics, and the master had usually, though not invariably, yielded to the expressed wish of the parents and allowed the Roman Catholic children to be absent or otherwise employed while the Scripture lesson was in progress. This was

the existing practice in five or six schools, and had at some time or other happened in three or four others.

Actual conduct of religious teaching.

Endeavouring to describe the way in which these various methods are found to work, one is brought face to face with what is called the great religious difficulty. The religious difficulty is a problem to whose examination there is only one thing wanting, and that is the problem itself. There is, so far as I could discover, no religious difficulty at all. One comes into the country expecting to be at once confronted by it, to find sects and parties clamouring against one another, each claiming to be free from all religious teaching but its own, each seeking for itself the patronage of schools, or the right, if now refused, to hold educational appointments. Knowing the keen political spirit of Lancashire people, and the strength not only of some of the nonconforming Protestant bodies, but also of the Roman Catholics, it seemed natural to look for great excitement and frequent struggles upon these points which are discussed with so much heat in the newspapers and at public meetings. Nothing could be more unlike the reality. There is, I will not say a profound peace, but an almost entire absence among the laity of any signs of an angry spirit upon these questions. Taking considerable pains to inform myself of the views held on every side, my difficulty was to find people who had views or who cared about the matter at all. The conclusion soon forced itself upon me that the religious difficulty is, as regards the grammar schools, a chimera; in other words, that there is nothing to prevent the children of persons of all religious denominations from being educated together in mutual amity.

(*a*) Feelings of the parents.

The facts which seem to point to this conclusion may be distributed under two heads. (*a.*) Those obtained from inquiring the feelings and wishes of parents. (*b.*) Those stated by schoolmasters with regard to the actual condition of their schools.

Their slight interest in dogmatic teaching.

It may or may not be peculiar to Lancashire, it may or may not be in itself a misfortune, but the attitude of the great majority of Lancashire parents towards dogmatic teaching is one of unconcealed indifference. Sometimes it seems as though they were indifferent to religious teaching altogether. They do not inquire into the quantity given or the capacity of the teacher to impart it. They display but scant interest in it when compared with their anxiety to see the boy improve in penmanship or accounts. Nevertheless it would be too much to say that they would lightly acquiesce in its extinction. They look on it as a thing regarding which, seeing that it is already firmly established on a basis of custom and does not directly affect their son's success in life, it is not fitting for them to judge. The vast majority of persons, I was assured, would be unwilling to see the subject of religion—and especially the reading of the Bible—expressly excluded from schools. But as to the doctrine which is taught to their children, the case is different. They do not seem to hold strong theoretical views either adverse or favourable to the rigid enforcement of dogma. But it is a subject (I speak throughout of the laity only) to which they pay very little heed, and whose minutiæ they would declare

themselves incompetent to pronounce on. It is rare, I believe, for a Lancashire parent to supply the lack of doctrinal teaching at school by giving it at home, as was, and to some extent is still, the case in Scotland. It is not less uncommon for him to ask the schoolmaster what is the amount and quality of the dogmatic instruction given in the school. Sometimes a boy is sent to a particular school because it is kept by a Church of England man, or a Wesleyan, or a Baptist, and the father wishes to encourage a member of his own communion. But this is a social or personal motive, not a religious one; and, except among the Roman Catholics, the doctrinal character of the school is the very last thing that sways the mind of a father and mother in choosing a place for their son or daughter.

Testimony of this apathy: Feelings of parents of different denominations.

That this is so does not, from the nature of the case, admit of proof positive. I can only say that it was so represented to me by the concurrent testimony of almost every parent and every schoolmaster whom I questioned, and was admitted by many clergymen who deplored it. It seemed, as far as I could judge, to be equally common in all denominations. Church of England parents take it as natural that their children should learn the catechism, but they don't ask for it where it is not taught,* nor care how it is taught, that is to say, whether any meaning is attached to the words got by rote. They have certainly no desire whatever that their sons should be educated apart from Dissenters. When the question is put to them, they express themselves pleased that religion should be recognized in the school; scarcely one, so far as I can remember, ever gave utterance to a wish that teaching should be what is called "distinctive."

The Church of England.

The Wesleyans.

It is very much the same with the Nonconformists. The Wesleyans, as a rule, are quite willing that their children should learn the Church Catechism, if it is taught to the rest; otherwise they don't care.

Congregationalists and Presbyterians.

The Independents and Presbyterians—both of them numerous bodies in the large towns—seem to be, especially the latter, both more attached to dogma and more opposed to the Church Catechism.

Friends.

The Friends object to fixed dogmatic teaching,

Baptists.

and the Baptists protest on special grounds against the introductory part of the Catechism, which is, indeed, as applied to unbaptized children, confessedly out of place.

Unitarians.

Swedenborgians.

The objections made by the Unitarians—a body particularly influential in Lancashire—and by the New Jerusalem Church, or Swedenborgians, go even deeper, and strike at the whole basis of the Catechism.

Instances of objections made.

I have on record cases in which members of all these six last-mentioned denominations remonstrated against their children learning the Catechism. The result of the remonstrance varied according to the rules of the school and the temper of the master. Thus, in one instance, an orthodox Nonconformist minister objecting to the Catechism, the rules of the school were alleged, and he refused to send his

* Church of England parents, I was told, often complain of the rule in the Oxford local examinations, that the rudiments of faith and religion shall be a necessary subject unless the candidate asks to be excused "Conscientiæ causa." They cannot make this declaration, and their sons, being at schools where the Catechism is not taught, are at a disadvantage when examined in it.

son.* In another the Unitarians of the town, knowing that the regulations could not or would not be relaxed, sent all their children to schools at a distance. In a third a Baptist protesting, his son was excused the earlier questions of the Catechism. In a fourth the schoolmaster told me that he had succeeded in removing the objections of a Congregationalist parent. In a good many others the masters seemed to have yielded, and in several they said that, without appearing to make any difference, they catechized only the Church of England boys. There were also many instances, chiefly of schools in the country or in small towns, where the question seemed to have never been raised at all, and all the children—some Nonconformists among them—were taught the Catechism alike. It was not always easy to ascertain in such cases whether the parents' attention had ever been called to the matter, but I was informed, and saw no reason to doubt the fact, that in a number of cases Nonconformists did know that their children were learning Church of England formularies, and made no difficulty about it. The cause of this at first sight singular phenomenon appeared to be this—that since the thing had never been made matter of controversy, and was not asserted as a right against them, no principle was felt to be involved in, and no passion excited by, it. The advent of an agitator on one side or the other might at any moment have dispelled this pleasing calm, which existed, not because the question had been settled, but because it had never been raised.

The Roman Catholics.

The position of the Roman Catholics is of course different from that of other Nonconformists. They cannot possibly suffer their children to learn the Catechism or to attend the services of the Church of England, and to enforce these on all scholars is virtually to exclude Roman Catholics from the school. They are, it must be remembered, very numerous in Lancashire, and although in the large towns many are poor Irish, unable to avail themselves of grammar school instruction, many more are Lancashire people, occupying a good position in society, and anxious not to sever themselves educationally, or in any other way, from the body of their fellow-citizens. These liberal feelings are frequently not discouraged by their priests, who, being also Englishmen born, are not disposed to insist with ultramontane rigour on the entire isolation of Roman Catholic boys, and their education in exclusively denominational schools. I was led to believe, therefore, that if the grammar schools were open to them, Roman Catholic boys would freely resort thither (as in some cases they do already).†

* This was one of the most definite cases of hardship that came before me, for there was no other good school in the town, and the grammar school had been founded before the Reformation. It was reported to me by the head-master of the school.

† As an illustration, I may cite the case of the grammar (now virtually an elementary) school at Eccleston, in the parish of Prescot. Roman Catholics are numerous in the neighbourhood, and when one brings his boy to the school the master tells him that it is usual to read and give instruction in the Scriptures, and inquires if he has any objection to his son's joining in this. The parents answer that the boy must not learn the Catechism, but may read and learn Scripture. The school goes on smoothly, and the Roman Catholics use it freely. In another place I was told that the Roman Catholic priest had himself caused two boys to be sent to the grammar school, where they would be required to read the Scriptures in the authorized version.

Some priests would enjoin them not to attend prayers or read in any but the Douay version of the Bible: others would be content to waive these points, or pass them over in a discreet silence; by few or none would any difficulty be raised except on the question of the Catechism. But on this they would be inexorable, and it was not without strong feeling that they complained of a rule which excluded them alone from the benefits enjoyed by every other Christian community. "They exclude us from civic privileges, and then turn round and tell us we are bad citizens."

(*b*) Present condition of the schools as respects religious teaching.

The actual condition of the schools is a fair reflection of the wishes and feelings of the parents. To the statistical view of their religious instruction, given in the Tables, it is necessary to add only the impression which I received in visiting them and questioning the masters minutely and at length upon their manner of dealing with the difficulties which are supposed to beset them. In those schools where dogma is not enforced, things seemed to be going on in a peaceable and satisfactory way. There was nothing to indicate the presence of children of different creeds, still less to betray the latent fire of theological hatred. Sometimes the master declared he did not know which were Church of England children and which the children of Dissenters. All seemed to join with equal heartiness in the concluding hymn or prayer, where such was the custom of the school. In no single case did I hear that any antagonism had arisen among the scholars, or that they so much as knew to what church each other's parents belonged. It was indeed evident when, desiring to learn the proportions of each persuasion, I asked Church of England boys, Independents, Roman Catholics, and so forth, to stand up in succession, how new the idea was to them of being asked about their religion. Often they could hardly be made to understand what I meant, and it was only by discovering which church or Sunday school they went to that I could get at a trustworthy result. Nine masters out of ten declared to me that they had never found any difficulty whatever connected with religious teaching or difference of creed. Those who gave no dogmatic teaching said that the only question they had found arise was with Roman Catholics, who occasionally, though very rarely, wished their sons to be absent from prayers or the Bible reading. In such cases, they allowed a boy to come at 9.15 instead of 9 A.M., or to learn some other lesson while the Scripture reading was in progress. Those who taught but did not enforce the Church catechism, either taught it to all till an objection was made (in which case they excused the objector), or they inquired which boys belonged to the Church of England, and thereafter taught them only, keeping the others employed in some other way—perhaps at preparation or with extra arithmetic. They did not find this, they assured me, offensive either to their own feelings or to those of any boy in the school, nor did it to any appreciable extent disturb its unity or the symmetry of its organization. For their own part they did not see why anyone should find difficulty in what they found so simple and easy. They had, of course, an obvious motive for desiring the presence of Dissenters; and I believe that the cases are very few indeed in

Plans adopted by schoolmasters.

In schools where all denominations are admitted.

which a schoolmaster would be found unwilling to defer to the conscientious objections of any nonconforming parent. So much for the schools which are now practically open to all denominations: a few words more in detail may seem to be required for those in which Church of England dogma is compulsory.

Instances of schools where dogmatic teaching is enforced: Bolton.

Bolton grammar school is by its situation, if not by its endowment, one of the most important in Lancashire. It was founded in the time of the Commonwealth, with nothing in the foundation deed to prescribe any specific form of religious instruction. By a byelaw emanating from its governing body, the Church catechism is enforced upon all scholars. Protestant nonconformists generally use the school, though some of them have objected, and refused to send their sons on such conditions. The Roman Catholics do not come, and having no good school of their own in the place, complain bitterly of their exclusion.

The curiosity of this case is that hard by the ancient grammar school there stands a sort of proprietary school, founded as a strictly Church of England institution, in which the Church catechism is not enforced, for the plain reason that it would diminish the income from capitation fees.

Kirkham.

Kirkham is a small country town, in the Fylde district, the revenues of whose grammar school already exceed 500*l.* per annum. Its origin is unknown; but the earliest of the existing endowments dates from the time of the Commonwealth (A.D. 1658). The indenture of that date requires the schoolmaster to be a Protestant, but says no word respecting religious instruction. A scheme of the Court of Chancery, dated A.D. 1840, commands the head-master to "take especial care that all the boys "are regularly instructed in the Church catechism, and that they "receive a good religious education, suitable to their respective "ages and in strict accordance with the ritual, and doctrines, "and discipline of the Church of England, as now established."

The Protestant nonconformists of the place, who are few in number, seem to have made little or no objection; the Roman Catholics, who are numerous, stay away altogether. I heard of one case in which a Roman Catholic parent, having sent his son, was, owing to the enforcement of the Catechism, obliged to withdraw him after a few weeks.

Bury.

The grammar school of Bury was founded in the beginning of last century, by a clergyman of the Church of England, who made his trustees a dominantly clerical body, and who, besides prescribing a religious instruction in strict conformity with the doctrines of the Church of England, ordered that the boys should regularly attend church on certain Sundays and holidays. These directions are rigidly observed, except as to the attendance on Sundays. Most

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* This byelaw says, "The head-master shall take especial care that the boys be "thoroughly versed in the Church catechism and receive in strict accordance with "the doctrine and discipline of the Established Church such other religious instruction "as may be suitable to their respective ages and acquirements. The master and "boys shall attend the church every Friday during Lent; the boys shall repeat the "the catechism in the parish church on some Friday during Lent."

of the Protestant nonconformists have, under the discreet management of the present head-master, who is popular in the town, been found willing to attend the school. The Unitarians, however, who are numerous and powerful, stay away, and without denying the justice of an arrangement ordered by the founder, they expressed to me their regret that so good a school should have received an exclusive character which prevented them from using it. Here the foundation is so recent, and the founder so express, that no one professed to argue against the restriction, except upon those general grounds of public policy which are sometimes supposed to justify interference with the wishes of a founder. Everybody in the town spoke well of the present management, but at the same time I was given to understand that with a less conciliatory head-master difficulties might arise, which, in a place where political feeling ran so high, might go far to seriously injure the school.

Clitheroe.

At Clitheroe, a town of some 7,000 people, one half of them, I was told, Nonconformists, there is a grammar school of considerable note, founded by King Philip and Queen Mary in 1554. Neither the charter nor the statutes drawn up by the governors, with the advice of the Bishop of Chester, in A.D. 1622, under the authority of a decree of Chancery, make any mention of religious instruction. The last set of rules made by the governors, and approved by the Bishop of Chester in A.D. 1835, order that "the course of education at the school, shall be religious, according to the tenets of "the established church, classical, mathematical and commercial." The head-master construes this as making the teaching of the Church catechism compulsory on all scholars. He said that he had never had any formal objection from a parent, but that if he had, he should probably feel it his duty, as a clergyman of the Church of England, to exclude rather than excuse the boy. Roman Catholics seemed to be few in the immediate neighbourhood, but such as there might be were of course excluded,* nor would it avail them to invoke the shades of King Philip and Queen Mary.†

Instances of schools where the teaching is not distinctive: Preston.

For the sake of a comparison with these schools, it may be well briefly to describe the position of several others not enforcing dogmatic teaching.

In the great town of Preston both Protestant and Roman Catholic dissenters are numerous. At the grammar school, managed, as has been already stated, by the Town Council, the Bible is taught to all the boys, except to such Roman Catholics and Jews as may object (which they rarely do): and the head-master, a clergyman of the Church of England, gives such comments as

* I was given to understand, however, that some years ago a Roman Catholic boy had been in the school, having been tacitly excused from some at least of the religious teaching.

† In Warrington a chancery scheme of so recent a date as 1859 restricts the grammar school to children belonging to the Church of England; its words are, "The head-"master shall with due diligence instruct the scholars in the principles of the Chris-"tian religion according to the liturgy of the Church of England, and for that "purpose shall cause them to learn and repeat, and shall explain to them, the Church "catechism."

he thinks calculated to explain the meaning without treading on controversial ground. One of the under-masters is a Roman Catholic, and about half the boys are, as I was informed, Nonconformists. Recently a prize given for religious knowledge was carried off by a Roman Catholic boy, and a school scholarship gained by the son of a dissenting minister. Every person whom I saw spoke favourably of the school, and remarked on the confidence with which it was regarded by all parties in the town.

Colne. In the grammar school of Colne, a quiet little town on the verge of those great purple moors which form the borderland of Lancashire and Yorkshire, I found a somewhat peculiar system prevailing. All scholars read and are questioned in the Bible, and learn also the Creed and the Ten Commandments: no other dogmatic teaching is given. One-third of the scholars are Independents, one-third Wesleyans, one-third Church of England and Roman Catholics (these latter being very scantily represented). About seven years ago the master of this school was a Nonconformist minister, belonging to the Inghamite persuasion.

Goosnargh. Goosnargh is a village, six miles from Preston, where the endowed country school is managed by the Twenty-four of the parish. The Bible, without questions on its meaning, is taught to all the scholars, and the Church of England catechism to all except six Nonconformists and some Roman Catholics. Of these latter some do not join in the prayers. There has never, according to the master's report, been any dispute or jealousy in the school respecting matters of religion, and everything goes on at present quite smoothly.

Stand. At Stand, one of the outermost suburbs of Manchester, there is a small grammar school, whose trustees are all Unitarians, and whose head-master is a Unitarian minister. The Bible is read by the master with his boarders only, and there is no dogmatic instruction of any kind. Most of the boarders were Unitarians, while the day-boys were equally divided between the Church of England and nonconforming bodies.

Lane Head. There is a curious little school, with a very small endowment, at a place called Lane Head, in the parish of Great Eccleston, near Garstang. It is managed by the committees of an Independent and a Baptist congregation, acting jointly, and empowering the Independent minister to superintend and examine the school. The master is a Baptist; so are many of the children; the rest are Independents, Church of England, and Roman Catholics (numerous hereabouts). The Bible is read and explained; but no further doctrinal teaching is given. Singularly enough, this school, which has been for a long time in the hands of Nonconformists, was founded by a clergyman of the Church of England.

Friends school at Lancaster. In Lancaster I came across an endowed school of a rather peculiar nature, not mentioned in the Report of the Charity Commission, though its income averages about 50*l.* a year. It belongs to and is managed by the Friends' Meeting of the town, a committee of whom appoint the master, giving him the endowment and the room rent free, and letting him charge what

fees he pleases. The master was in this case himself a member of the Society of Friends, but not one of the children was, the majority belonging to the Church of England. Two were Roman Catholics. Scripture was taught, but no dogmatic instruction given:

I have selected these examples merely as instancing the variety of arrangements as respects religious teaching. The three latter are, so far as I know, the only endowed schools in Lancashire coming within the scope of your inquiry which are directly connected with any nonconforming communities. I should have been glad, had space permitted, to have laid before you the complete results of my questions in every school, since they pointed, almost without exception, to the same conclusion—that parents are very little sensitive respecting the religious teaching given to their children, and that schoolmasters of tact, whatever their own persuasion, find it perfectly easy, if they are left unhampered by rules, to give such teaching, dogmatic or undogmatic, as they think it their duty to give, without either violating the conscientious feelings of any parent or interfering with the organization of their school. A few illustrations drawn from schools of a different class may possibly help to confirm this position.

Illustrations from schools not endowed.

In the course of my inquiries I was frequently brought into communication with Her Majesty's Inspectors, and had occasion to observe the working of the Privy Council system. It is too notorious to require proof that the schools in connexion with the National Society, in which the religious teaching is given on Church of England principles, are very largely used by the children of Nonconformists. I was informed that such children are generally, even where there is no conscience clause, excused from learning the Church catechism, or would be excused if their parents chose to object. Very often they do not object, perhaps just because no attempt is made to compel them to learn the Catechism along with the rest. This, however, is not all. The British schools, which are mainly supported by Dissenters, and in which no doctrinal instruction is given, are used with equal readiness by the parents who belong to the Church of England, and this though there may be a plentiful supply of National (*i.e.*, Church of England) schools in the neighbourhood. Thus, in Manchester, at one of these British schools which I visited, unconnected with any denomination, I found on inquiry that about 52 per cent. of the children then in school belonged to the Church of England.

(*a*) From Privy Council schools.

The case of another, which was supported by and associated with a religious denomination whose doctrines differ widely from those of the Established Church, was even more remarkable. Here the distinctive theological teaching of the religious body in question was given to every child in the school except the Roman Catholics, numbering between 20 and 30, who were, however, required to read the Bible in the Douay version. Taking the highest class in this school, I found that of 35 boys, 17

belonged to the Church of England, 5 were Wesleyans, 3 Independents, 2 Unitarians, and 8 belonged to the New Jerusalem Church. The teachers assured me that this proportion was just that which prevailed throughout the school, except that in the lower classes I should have found more Roman Catholics. About 47 per cent. of the total number of boys belonged to the Church of England.

Inquiring from those certificated masters whose experience enabled them to speak on such a matter, I was informed that this was the rule, and that in every British school with which they were acquainted a large number of Church of England children would be found. I had reason to believe that this was true from casual inquiries made here and there as opportunity offered—as, for instance, at Wigan, where the Presbyterian school contained a considerable proportion of Church of England children. In all these cases there were good National schools close by, where the boys might have received a strict dogmatic instruction, had their parents so wished it.

(*b*) From schools supported by dissenting congregations.

A second illustration is supplied by the case of schools supported by Nonconformist congregations, several of which I visited. At one in Liverpool, belonging to the Independents, boys of all Protestant denominations were to be found in the school, one-third belonging to the Church of England. At another in Manchester, 25 per cent. of the children were Independents (the denomination to which the school belonged); 20 per cent. were Church of England; 25 per cent. Wesleyans; and the rest apparently Dissenters of other bodies. Both these schools were expressly under the control of, and held in buildings belonging to, the congregation, and the boys who filled them came, so far as I could judge, from respectable homes. Their parents appeared to be persons regularly attending some place of worship.

(*c*) From private boys' and girls' schools.

The last evidence to be adduced is that supplied by private schools. Those which I visited were kept by persons of all denominations, who seldom gave any distinctive doctrinal teaching. For the most part they were content to read the Bible, asking, perhaps, some questions on the narratives contained in it, and that was all. Very few indeed have returned themselves as teaching either the Church catechism or any other manual of doctrine. Their schools are attended promiscuously by children of all denominations, and they were unanimous in assuring me that parents rarely requested them to give any dogmatic teaching, and that they had never found difference of creed among their pupils give rise to the slightest difficulty.

In a few private schools, girls' schools as well as boys', however, I did find dogmatic instruction. Where the teacher, belonging himself or herself to the Church of England, gave this through the medium of the Church catechism, all or most of the children learnt it as a matter of course, whatever their creed. Where, being a Nonconformist, the master or mistress used the Westminster Assembly's Shorter Catechism, the same result followed.

Just as Nonconformist children in one school learnt the Church catechism without objecting, so in others* Church of England children learnt the Presbyterian catechism with equal readiness. The parents were well pleased that some creed should be taught, and did not care which creed.

General conclusions from these facts.

Putting all these facts together, the unanimous testimony of parents and of schoolmasters, the actual condition of the endowed schools, illustrated as it is by the parallel cases of the Privy Council, the Congregational, and the private boys' and girls' schools; and the total absence in all the schools I visited of anything to indicate a "religious difficulty," it seemed impossible to avoid the following conclusions:—

1. That Protestant parents do not demand any distinctive dogmatic teaching for their children.
2. That they do not generally object to any such teaching, so long as it is not forced upon them.
3. That they desire, though not earnestly, that religion should be in some way, however vague or general, recognized in the school.
4. That Roman Catholic parents would not generally refuse to use such Protestant schools as consented to exempt their sons from doctrinal teaching and from attendance at Protestant prayers.
5. That there are no practical difficulties in receiving boys of different creeds in the same schools, and giving, to some at least, a distinctive religious teaching.

Their bearing on what is called the denominational system.

If the facts above stated have any force, the conclusions to which they point have no doubt a scope wider than that of the present Inquiry: they seem to tell against the need of a denominational system of education at all. Many of the persons whom I consulted did not hesitate to avow this, and to declare their conviction that denominationalism, as it now exists, was aggravating religious differences, injuring the quality of education, and becoming an instrument of mischief in the hands of extreme men of all parties. Such questions it is happily needless to discuss here. The problem, as it relates to the Lancashire endowed schools and to the education of those classes for whom the Government schools are not intended, is a far simpler one, and seems to admit of an easy solution.

Views entertained in Lancashire respecting the proper arrangements for religious teaching in schools.

Among those persons whose views you directed me to ascertain, there appeared to be four opinions, or rather four types of opinion, mainly prevailing. They were these:

Strong Church of England view.

(*a.*) That the grammar schools should be definitely recognized as Church of England schools, their trustees and teachers being all members of the Establishment; the instruction given in them regulated by the Church catechism and the Thirty-nine Articles; and the Prayer-book alone used in worship. This system, as has been stated, is seldom carried out in its fulness in Lancashire; nor did I find many persons advocating it, owing, apparently,

* This was especially the case in Liverpool, where many of the school masters and mistresses are Scotch immigrants.

to the danger foreseen of seeming to involve the grammar schools in political embroilments.

Secular view.

(*b.*) Exactly opposed to these persons stands another party, who wish to see education wholly secular, and the management of the schools disconnected—legally, at least—from any one religious communion. This, like the view last-mentioned, appeared to be held as a part of a political theory too well known to require description. Those working men with whom I had the opportunity of conversing expressed almost universally their own desire for such a system. Whether this was, as they said it was, the desire of their class generally, I had no means of ascertaining.

Between these extremes there were many intermediate schemes of compromise. Two deserve to be specially mentioned.

Intermediate views.

(*c.*) A third view was that of those who, while recognizing the grammar schools as being primarily and legally connected with the Church of England, desire to make them, so far as education goes, accessible to all classes. "The teaching of the Church catechism "ought," said these persons, "to be the rule in all endowed schools, "but we are willing to exempt boys whose parents may object "on conscientious grounds. This is, as a matter of fact, and "without any rule at all, the practice in many schools already. "It is also that which has received the sanction of the Charity "Commission, whose practice it has been to insert in their recent "schemes for grammar schools a clause prescribing religious in- "struction according to the doctrines of the Church of England, "but exempting those whose parents conscientiously object." Some people said that as a matter of theory they would prefer to have no such clause, thinking that it brought into full light the evidence of religious differences which may, as far as schools are concerned, be practically ignored. They did not regard it, so far as I could understand, as positively injurious to the Church of England, but merely, looked at as a matter of taste, as unpleasant, appearing to coerce them into what they would have done of their own accord. The same view was put strongly to me by several clergymen who declared themselves ready to accept such as an arrangement, if not commanded. The Nonconformists made a very similar objection from an opposite point of view. In practice, they said, the clause gave them all that was needed to secure freedom of conscience, but they had rather not be put, as it seemed to them, into the attitude of persons begging off something which they admitted no one's right to enforce. They did not, they said, desire—any more than the Church of England desired—the fact of Nonconformity to be obtruded. Nor did they admit that the foundation schools belonged of right to one religious body more than another.

First compromise. Exemption of persons objecting on conscientious grounds.

Second compromise: Education religious but undenominational.

(*d*) Lastly, I found others who sought to make the instruction of the schools wholly undenominational, although still religious. As long, they argued, as you make the Church Catechism the rule of the school, so long will Nonconformists, Roman Catholic and Protestant, look upon the school as something alien to them, and where they are admitted only on sufferance. "Let the Bible,"

they continued, "be read, and if necessary, commented upon "historically and practically; that is sufficient to give a religious "character to the school. Doctrine may be taught in the Sunday "school, or by those whose duty and privilege it is to teach it, "the father and mother."

Probable result of the adoption of one or other of these proposals.

It is no part of my duty to offer criticisms upon any of these schemes; except to say that, so far as I could discover, the third would be tolerably, and the fourth perfectly acceptable to the great majority of the Lancashire laity. There seems, in fact, to be no need for imposing upon every school a scheme with its positive rules, or for maintaining such rules where they now exist. Suppose the principle once publicly enunciated and recognized that a grammar school is to serve the whole population of the neighbourhood, and that it has therefore no right to make religious instruction compulsory, the injustice which is now complained of in cases like Bolton, Kirkham, and Clitheroe would at once be put a stop to. It would not be necessary to go further, and prescribe either for all schools, or by a special rule in each school, the exact amount and nature of the religious instruction to be given, and the form which a parent's objection must take in order to be admitted. To do this, that is to say, to make the school professedly Church of England, and challenge Dissenters to object, tends to irritate both parties, and may unduly limit the discretion of the schoolmaster. Although some teachers will decide to teach the catechism to Church of England children and let the rest go without religious instruction, others will prefer to waive the catechism and give to all their scholars an instruction which is in a measure doctrinal, but also undenominational, and therefore not objected to by parents. As this latter plan keeps religious differences in the background (whereas a clause prescribing specific religious instruction obtrudes them), and as it is found to work well in schools like Preston and Colne, it would be a pity to do anything which should discountenance or interdict it. Schoolmasters now generally desire to give religious teaching, both conceiving it to be their duty and knowing that they thereby satisfy the popular sentiment. They do not desire to enforce dogma on any boy of a different persuasion, both from their own sense of propriety and because to do so would injure the school and diminish their income derived from the school. It may, therefore, be concluded that if things are simply left alone (after redressing any violence now done to conscience by the existing rules of a school) they will, in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, settle themselves. If in the hundredth case difficulties and disputes arise, they can be referred for adjudication to a competent authority empowered to enforce the principle that the grammar schools are for the use and benefit of all denominations alike.

F. Of the Teachers in Endowed Schools.

Number and position of the masters in endowed schools.

In more than one-fourth of the endowed schools in Lancashire the original foundation provided two masters, the inferior of whom was generally called by a name which has now fallen into

some contempt—that of usher. Sometimes a fixed part of the revenues was directed to be paid to each of these functionaries, as at Bury; in other cases the trustees were to pay both according to their discretion. In a few instances, as at Lancaster, new endowments were engrafted on the old one to procure or to make better provision for the support of an assistant-master; and even where no such provision exists, the increase during the last few years in the number of boys seeking entrance to the school has generally led either the governors or the head-master to appoint one or more assistants, in proportion to the size of the establishment. Thus it is now only the small country schools which are left altogether to the mercy of one teacher, while such schools as those of Manchester and Lancaster employ a considerable staff.

Some seven or eight schools possess a separate master for modern languages, and about the same number have made regular provision for the teaching of drawing, usually by engaging the services of some person not otherwise connected with the school—often a government teacher—who comes for a certain number of hours per week.

Relation of the head to the other masters.

The relation of the several masters to one another varies according to the constitution of the school. In the older schools, where the usher is as much a part of the foundation as the master, he is generally appointed by the governing body, with or without the concurrence of the head-master, and is therefore considered to be responsible to and dismissible by the trustees only. This is the case in Preston, Wigan, and other places. Where, on the other hand, the usher is a modern addition, his appointment is more frequently left to the head-master, with or without the concurrence of the trustees. And in those cases in which the assistant master or masters is or are paid by the head-master out of his profits, without any recourse to the trustees, the power of appointing and dismissing rests with the head-master alone. Here, in fact, as elsewhere, the power of the purse draws every other power in its train: and as at Penwortham, where there are several assistants, the trustees are held to appoint all since they pay all out of the endowment; so at Lancaster the head-master appoints and pays all but the second master, who exists as a part of the foundation. Where the right of appointment is vested in the governing body, it is usual for them either to consult the master in making a selection from the candidates, or to leave it wholly to him, and content themselves with confirming his act. In these cases it becomes a question whether what is recognized in practice should not also be recognized legally. And in those few instances in which the trustees regard the ushership as a piece of private patronage, to be exercised without any reference to the master, may it not be advisable to withdraw it from them, and vest it in him alone? The question is one of some importance, for an usher not appointed by the head-master is apt to think himself in a manner independent; while the head, unless he be a person of great tact and strong character, is unwilling or unable to assert an effective supremacy.

Question respecting the appointment of assistants, in whom to be vested.

The arguments which I heard given for leaving the appointment with the governors were two. First, it was urged that this was a piece of patronage which had always belonged to them, and could not with justice be taken away. Secondly, it was alleged that the trustees act as a useful check on the master, and prevent him from jobbing the appointment, or making capricious dismissals, or behaving tyrannically towards his subordinates. Reasons for leaving the appointment with the trustees.

In reply to these arguments, others of at least equal weight were advanced on behalf of the head-master. The head, it was argued, if fit for his post at all, is fitter to choose his assistants than trustees can possibly be, since he best knows both the requirements of the school, and the sort of man who will carry out his own ideas and supply the defects he is conscious of in his own knowledge or skill. "He is more likely than they are to have some knowledge of and connexion with the Universities, or with those other seminaries whence candidates for the vacant post may be expected. He can test their qualifications by examining them himself, instead of leaning—as trustees must generally lean—upon the broken reed of testimonials. It is above all things essential that the school be what Plato would have the State, as much as possible One, managed on one system, pervaded by one set of principles, with all its machinery working in harmony towards a single end. This can be gained only by making the head-master absolute; by allowing him to appoint and dismiss his lieutenants at his own will and pleasure. To set up an *imperium in imperio,* to permit appeals from under-masters to the governors, is fatal to good order and discipline. As for jobbery, it is more likely to come from governors than from the head-master, who has a direct interest in the prosperity of the school, and may be made amenable to the governing body for any transgression in his duty; whereas the trustees judge all men and are judged of none. *Quis custodiet ipsos custodes?* That school succeeds best wherein there is no divided responsibility, where the head is allowed full scope in his means, and weighed, as he deserves to be weighed, by the results." Reasons for giving it to the head-master.

The facts which I saw seemed to lend no small force to these arguments. There was in Lancashire—so much cannot be said for Wales—very little jobbery, either by trustees or head-master, but there was much greater opportunity for the head-master to make a judicious selection. Where despotic power was vested in the head, he did not seem to have made an unjust use of it; and even though he had, less harm was done than would have been caused by a civil war in the school itself. The separation of the usher's from the head master's province, of which I have already spoken (*supra,* p. 499) appeared to be in all cases a misfortune. Finally, the trustees of almost all the most important schools assured me that they were anxious to have the advice of the head-master in choosing an usher, and, indeed, whenever they had confidence in him to leave it wholly in his hands. It need scarcely be said that head-masters themselves took this view, declaring that it gave them, so to speak, a firmer seat in their Practical aspect of question.

Feelings of head-masters themselves.

saddle. One among them—one of the most eminent in England—said to me, "I believe the tenure by which I hold to be the best "possible. All my under-masters are absolutely at my mercy, and "I am absolutely at the mercy of the governors." The latter half of this sentence is evidently the proper consequence of the former.

Conclusion: Desirability of leaving veto only with trustees.

These considerations led me to believe that the appointment of under-masters is better vested in the head-master than in trustees. Whether the latter should be suffered to retain any control is another question, in which I did not feel that the facts before me pointed to a distinct conclusion. On the whole, while much may be said for leaving the head perfectly unfettered, the testimony of some trustees to the advantage which they had found in retaining a veto seemed entitled to great consideration; and possibly the most satisfactory arrangement would be to make the master's power of dismissal absolute, while the power of appointment vested in him should require for its exercise the consent of the trustees. Thus the head-master would be supreme in the management of the school, and be able at any moment to rid himself of a person whom, whether from his own fault or the other's, he could not get on with; while at the same time he would be liable to a check in any unworthy exercise of his patronage. Such a scheme cannot be called unimpeachable, for it is just possible that governors might exercise their veto in a vexatious way. But on the whole it seems to combine the greatest number of merits with the fewest openings for abuse.

Control of the head over other masters.

As to the further question—the right of the head-master to a complete control over his assistants in the conduct of the school, nothing need be said; it is sufficiently obvious that this power must be lodged in him, although if he is wise he will prefer not to let it appear, and will seem rather to lead than to rule. I speak of course of schools as at present constituted. Whether another and wholly different arrangement may not be in some cases possible—an arrangement which may give very considerable independence to a number of masters, co-ordinate, or almost wholly so, with the head-master—is a point to be afterwards discussed.

Income of the teachers: its sources.

The income of the masters proceeds sometimes from the endowment alone; sometimes from endowment and capitation fees together; sometimes from both these with the addition of such profit as can be made on boarders. This last source of revenue is so fluctuating that no statistics regarding it could be of any service; it may sink to nothing or less than nothing, since a large establishment with few boarders is a loss; it may rise to several thousands a year.

Proportion of the fixed stipend to the income from fees.

Nor is it possible to state in a tabular form the incomes of head-masters from fees and endowment, since some have and some have not a dwelling house and garden provided them; some are and some are not charged with the payment of assistant-masters. But it may be remarked that in many schools, as, for example, Burnley, Clitheroe, Kirkham, Warrington, the fixed income (that from the endowment) bears a large proportion to the variable (that from fees), while in some, such as Bolton, Rivington, Penwortham, Blackrod, there is no variable income whatever. It is now

generally admitted to be an evil that that part of the master's gains which does not in the least depend on his own exertions should equal or exceed the part which does; and I saw abundant proof in the torpidity of many masters, and in the stories that reached me of the state of the schools in past times, to believe it a very serious one. Much difference of opinion exists regarding the plan of abolishing fixed stipends altogether, which is advocated by some persons who hold all payments not made for and by results to be in an economical point of view indefensible. Against them it was urged that a fixed stipend of from 80*l.* to 150*l.* in a town grammar school, from 30*l.* to 60*l.* in a country school, is a sum too small for a man to sit down comfortably upon in idleness. It may possibly lessen, but it does not remove the stimulus of self-interest; while at the same time it has a great effect in inducing men of ability and education to compete for these posts, men who could not be had for what the fees alone would produce. "Such "men feel," continued my informants, "that a stipend of this "kind, however small, gives them a more independent position "towards parents; and however active and hard-working they "may be, they seem to relish the idea of having something fixed "and certain, out of the reach of accidents."

Shall any fixed stipend be retained?

It is not easy to say what exact ratio the salary paid out of the endowment, supposing it retained, should be made to bear to the whole probable income of the master of a day-school. There seem to be good grounds for not suffering it to reach, and certainly never to exceed, one-half.

Supposing the plan described above (p. 479) to be carried out, the difficulty would at once disappear. If the endowment funds were employed in paying for the education free, or at reduced rates, of certain boys, the master might safely receive a larger proportion of them, since this part of his income, no less than that derived from the fees of pay boys, would be won by his exertions and depend upon them. The endowment would then, said the advocates of this scheme, become a source no longer of weakness but of strength.

There is another and a more important fact to which an examination of the masters' incomes as shown by the returns points —I mean the scanty pecuniary prospect which the profession of teaching holds out, even in this which might be thought, owing to the endowments, its most lucrative branch. The average given yearly income of a head-master in the schools of Class A (large town grammar schools) is 317*l.*; in Class B (small town grammar schools), 138*l.*; in Class C (country schools), 75*l.** The corresponding average income of the usher or second master in each of these classes cannot be stated with equal precision, but it is of course far smaller, probably not exceeding 120*l.* in schools of the first rank, 70*l.* in the second, and 30*l.* in the third rank (class C.)† To these sums it would be necessary to add, in the case of five or six

Poverty of the masters.

Their average income.

* In about half of these cases a house is provided for the head-master, which is equivalent to an increase of from 10*l.* to 100*l.* of yearly income.

† Only in a very few cases does the second master receive board or lodging.

head-masters, as at Lancaster, Preston, Clitheroe, Cartmel, Blackburn, and of one or two second masters, as at Kirkham, the profit on a boarding establishment. But the Lancashire towns, as has been said already, are nowise suited for boarding-schools, and many masters do not choose to make money in this way, finding it distasteful—being perhaps bachelors or widowers, and therefore not able to be sure that the house affairs are well seen to.

Means of improving the teacher's position.

If then the teacher's profits are at present insufficient, how can they be improved? Evidently not by increasing the fixed stipend, which is mostly too large (in proportion) already; it must therefore be by raising the fees. This is a topic which I do not feel competent to discuss to any good purpose, for on none did I receive so much contradictory evidence from persons resident in the Lancashire towns, who might have known, if anyone can know, the terms which parents of the class it is desired to reach are able to pay. Still when all had been said, it was scarcely possible to doubt that the fees are in most cases fixed too low, and that to raise them would probably cause no ultimate diminution in the number of scholars. But for the sake of the poorer people whom there might be a danger of excluding, it would be proper to provide a cheaper rate (the same or even lower than that which exists at present) at which they might be admitted. Thus, in the great towns at least, a very considerable increase of income might be obtained, in which the under-masters no less than the head should be admitted to share, each receiving a sum proportioned to the quantity and quality of the work done by him.

Importance of using every means to procure the best teachers.

It is a truism, but it is one of those truisms which cannot be too often repeated, to say that the schoolmaster makes the school. This was frequently impressed upon me by persons whose experience lent weight to their words. "After settling," said they, "every other question of educational reform, after reconstituting "governing bodies, rebuilding school houses, introducing new "subjects and methods of instruction, your Commissioners will "find that but little of their work is done. The one thing we "want is good masters. If you don't give us that you give us "nothing; if you do give us that you give us everything." They admitted that as this was the most vital problem, so it was also the most difficult, and that no infallible means of procuring good teachers could be suggested. But they added that there are steps which might be taken and arrangements which might be made, such as would tend to improve the chance that any given school has of getting an able man; and in some at least of these matters direct action is quite possible. Of one of them, admitted by all to be the most important, the need of bettering the pecuniary prospects of the endowed schoolmaster, I have already spoken. Three other points remain to be briefly touched on. First, the combination, sometimes to be met with, of scholastic with other non-educational functions. Secondly, the existence of certain restrictions on the choice of schoolmasters. Thirdly, the means employed by trustees in making an appointment.

(1.) *Combination of the Functions of a Schoolmaster with other Non-educational Functions.*

These other functions, excluding such private and occasional ones as the holding an insurance agency, or editing a newspaper, or acting as lecturer at the literary and scientific institute, are practically of two kinds. (*a*) In many of the smaller country schools the master fills the office of parish clerk, or of registrar of births and deaths for the district, sometimes of both together. It cannot be but that he is thereby more or less distracted from the school; yet I did not find that his work, if he were an active person, suffered perceptibly; and the feeling of trustees was that it would be harsh to forbid a man so poorly paid to take this means of adding to his income. The clergyman, I was told, finds it convenient to have his schoolmaster also his clerk, and where there is no National school the clergyman is apt to look on the endowed school as an appurtenance of the parish church.

Cases of schoolmasters undertaking non-scholastic duties,

(*b*) The second case, where the schoolmaster discharges stated clerical duties, is one of more importance. Sometimes the mastership was by the original foundation annexed to a cure of souls. Thus at Aughton, in the parish of Halton near Lancaster, the endowment is for a curate "to keep grammar school." Thus, at Lowick, near Coniston Lake, a sum of money having been bequeathed for the support of a curate who had theretofore taught grammar school, it was agreed that the proceeds thereof should be paid to the curate on condition of his giving security to teach in future; and a deed was drawn up accordingly. Foundations of the same kind are common in the northern counties, springing out of the desire to establish in remote and poor districts a provision at once for the spiritual and the secular needs of the people, divine service on Sunday, and instruction in reading and grammar during the rest of the week. Examining, however, the rules of the early founders, it will appear that this is not only an old institution but an old evil. How clearly its dangers were seen from the first is proved by the frequent prohibition to the schoolmaster to undertake any clerical office, and the injunction to the governors to restrain or deprive him if he do so. Even the usher, says one of the most judicious founders, Bishop Pilkington at Rivington, must not, unless in case of pressing need, be curate of the parish church. These provisions have been frequently transgressed in Lancashire in time past, but a case more singular than any which Lancashire offers is to be found at Dolgelly in North Wales. The founder of the grammar school there, himself a clergyman, expressly forbade the schoolmaster to have any cure of souls. For a long while past the mastership has been regularly given to the curate of the parish, who reads two or three services every Sunday, and has an extensive parish to look after. A few years ago some persons in the neighbourhood appealed to the founder's will, and took the question to a court of law, where it was held that the curacy was not technically a cure of souls, and that the letter of the rule was therefore not infringed. Infringed in spirit it certainly was, and the school ruined in consequence.

especially clerical duties.

Sometimes prescribed by the foundation deed.

Aughton.

Lowick.

Sometimes expressly forbidden.

Rivington.

Dolgelly.

When I visited it I found it held in a small parlour in the curate's lodgings; there were two scholars, aged respectively 8 and 11. Sometimes more than one piece of clerical work is undertaken by the schoolmaster. In Shropshire, for instance, I found a school which had gone almost to nothing. The master was incumbent of one parish, curate of another, and chaplain to a workhouse besides. Other instances crowd upon me, but the evils of such an arrangement are too patent to need any setting forth at length. A schoolmaster who is also priest must neglect one of his two functions, and may probably neglect both. In the case of the two Lancashire foundations before mentioned the curate has practically ceased to appear in the school, having handed over the teaching (which is of a quite elementary character) to an assistant who receives a small salary out of the endowment (itself scanty), and, in the case of Lowick, a government grant in addition. The testimony of trustees and inhabitants went to show that it would be desirable in every or almost every instance strictly to prohibit a schoolmaster from holding any clerical office whatever; and where the foundation unites the two functions, to reconstitute it so as to separate them.

Case in Shropshire.

(2.) *Restrictions on the Choice of a Schoolmaster.*

Restrictions on the choice of the master.

These restrictions are of two kinds—those imposed by the rules of the foundation, and those which the electing body practically and by usage, if not formally and by law, impose upon their own freedom of selection.

(*a*) Imposed by rules of foundation.

(*a*) Educational.

Upholland, Blackrod, &c. Kirkham, Rivington, &c.

Those of the former class may be again divided into two. Sometimes they are purely educational, requiring the master to be competent to teach classics (or, in the words of the foundation, "to keep grammar school") or to have graduated in one of the universities. The former holds at Aspul, Bispham, Upholland, Blackrod, Halsall, and other places, the latter at Kirkham, Rivington, Standish, Bury, Abbeystead, and Widnes.*

Both, but especially the latter, would produce some practical inconvenience, were they strictly observed, for in the smaller schools, such places as Aspul, Standish, and Abbeystead, the salary is not sufficient to induce university men to offer themselves. It might often be hard to procure even a person acquainted with Latin, and when procured, there would be little use for him in schools which the children leave at the age of 12 or 13. In some cases these rules have been abrogated; in others, while still nominally existing, they are in practice disregarded. I was led to believe that it would be well if they were swept away in a lump from all schools. To have been at the university and obtained his degree is evidently no security for a teacher's competence. It may often happen, in the case of schools of the second rank, where the master's income ranges from 100*l.* to 400*l.* per annum,

Propriety of abolishing them.

* I speak merely of the foundation deeds, whose provisions have in several cases been altered by the Court of Chancery.

that the best candidate is not a graduate of Oxford or Cambridge, perhaps not a graduate at all, and then the restriction is positively harmful. *Cæteris paribus*, trustees are already prepared to prefer the graduate, since if their own judgment is impeached they can fall back upon that which the university is (humorously) supposed to have passed upon the character and acquirements of the candidate. As this tendency is often found to work injuriously now, there seems no reason for strengthening it by making the degree absolutely requisite. The magic letters B.A. and M.A. are already regarded in the country with an excess of respect which the result often shows to have been misplaced.

(*b*) Non-educational.

Kirkham.

Sometimes, on the other hand, the statutes of the school require the master to be a clergyman, either for the purpose of discharging spiritual duties in the parish, as at Kirkham, where the master is ordered to preach once a month in the parish church, or merely as a mark of status.

(*β.*) Imposed by the practice of trustees.

The mention of this provision leads naturally to the consideration of those restrictions which trustees are in the habit of imposing on themselves. In almost all endowed schools it is a recognized principle that the master shall be a member of the Church of England, and in a majority of the more important ones custom also requires him to be a clergyman. At present 16 out of about 60 masters of endowed schools are in orders.

Arguments for and against the preference accorded to clerical schoolmasters.

I heard much said for and against this practice. Those who denounced it urged the folly of needlessly limiting the field of competitors. "Laymen," they said, "no less than clergymen, are "now to be found entering the scholastic profession, and would be "found there in far greater numbers were the preference now "accorded to clergymen once removed. They make equally good "teachers; why should we lose the chance of getting a better "man by shutting out so large a proportion of the possible can- "didates? Furthermore, by thus conspicuously identifying the "grammar school with the Church of England we alienate the "dissenters, many of whom suppose that a clerical head-master "will think himself bound to proselytize, or at any rate to look "harshly on their children." Some went even further, and declared that a schoolmaster was positively the worse for being a clergyman. "He is not contented to make teaching his profession "and stick to it; he is carried off to clerical meetings and archi- "diaconal visitations, and to take Sunday duty for his brethren "up and down the country. Instead of looking for success and "promotion to his school and its excellence, he hankers after "ecclesiastical preferment, and lives in hope of the day when "he may wash his hands of boys altogether."

To this it was answered with equal warmth that the schoolmaster derived from his clerical character a position and influence which he would otherwise lack, and that parents place their boys under his care with more confidence than they could be expected to display towards a layman. To the clergy, it was added by some, properly belongs the work of education everywhere, and it would

be an injury to the Church to do anything which should weaken their hold upon the public schools of the country.

Restriction to clergymen limits the field of choice more seriously now than it once did.

What weight is to be attached to these representations it is not for me to determine. There was but one point on which the evidence seemed to warrant a certain conclusion—the fact that the area of choice is far more considerably narrowed now than it was thirty or forty years ago by the tendency to prefer clergymen for head-masters, and that it is seriously narrowed by the rule or custom which almost everywhere restricts head-masterships to members of the Established Church. Cases were brought to my knowledge of persons whose character and abilities would have made them eminently suitable for educational posts of importance, from which, as laymen or as Nonconformists, they were excluded.

(3.) *Method in which Appointments are made.*

Plan adopted in making appointmnets.

Setting aside those exceptional cases in which the appointment of head-master is vested in some non-local person or body (*v. supra*, p. 444), the process of election is the same over all the schools of the county. Notice is given in the local newspapers—sometimes also in some clerical or educational newspaper—of the vacancy; testimonials are received, two or three of the most eligible candidates are perhaps asked to attend for an interview, and then the trustees present proceed to vote. In making up their minds they are obliged to trust entirely to the testimonials, supplemented occasionally by such private scraps of information as they can glean from some one who knew the candidate at college, or has heard how he prospers in the place in which he is at the moment engaged at work. As described by trustees themselves, the duty of giving a vote upon such means of knowledge is not a pleasant or easy one. Supposing them to be ever so conscientious in the matter, all they can do is to read over and ponder the testimonials; and this, to those who know how much looseness of expression, exaggeration, and even recklessness, men display in giving testimonials to their acquaintances, is an unwelcome and unfruitful task. In most cases they have no available means of instituting private inquiries respecting the candidate's university life, or his deportment in the situation which he may happen to be at the moment holding; and even if they do so, it is rarely that they can make sure of getting an impartial and trustworthy account. Few trustees, however, take the trouble even to study the testimonials. They come down with a general impression that M or N is the likeliest man, perhaps without any impression at all, and are easily brought over to vote for the favourite of some personal friend, or of an energetic colleague who has made up his mind already.

In an average board of school trustees composed of five or six country gentlemen or manufacturers, as the case may be, the parish clergyman, and perhaps a solicitor or two,* it is not probable that

* Boards are generally larger than this; but it is seldom that an election is made by the whole strength of the board.

more than one or two persons will be found who have any special acquaintance with literary and educational matters, persons knowing exactly what the qualities are which one should look for in a schoolmaster, and able to make a guess as to their presence. They may very well be sensible and prudent men, and yet not qualified to divine from testimonials, nor even from a man's presence, what he is likely to turn out as an actual teacher. Thus there can seldom be any thorough and deliberate judgment upon the merits of candidates, since neither the materials for a judgment nor the qualified judges themselves are certain to be present.

Difficulty of providing a remedy for these evils.

Those who thus described the inconveniences and defects of the present method of election were not, so far as I could gather, prepared to suggest any remedy which would meet the evil. They admitted that under any conceivable system the finding of the best man must be sometimes as much a matter of chance as the finding of the fittest general for an army or the fittest governor of a colony. Still they seemed to think that it might be possible to devise some expedient which could at least diminish the risks of bad appointments. Some were for enlarging the existing boards of trustees by the admission of a greater number of professional men, or other persons having received an university education. Others held that all appointments made by a local board of trustees should be subject to revision by a district board; or would even require the local board to be assisted in electing by a certain number of members of the district board as assessors. Others, advocating the creation of a central educational authority, seemed to wish that it should, without directly interfering to appoint, help the local body by information and advice; acting, in fact, as a sort of general scholastic agency to which trustees on the one hand and schoolmasters on the other might apply.

Expedients suggested.

Enlargement or improvement of electing boards.

Conjoint authority to be given to a district board, or to some central authority.

It was not possible to feel very sanguine as to the results of any of these proposed expedients, although all of them might possibly be worth trying. But the matter is one of such very great importance that it would have been improper to let it pass without mention.

It may be worth while to recapitulate in the briefest form the general conclusions, as stated in the foregoing pages, to which the information I received in Lancashire, as well as the observations I was able to make, seemed to point. They are as follows:—

1. That the management of school property should always be in the hands of the trustees.
2. That certain restrictions upon the eligibility of persons as trustees are found injurious.
3. That the common mode of renewing boards of trustees at long intervals is highly inconvenient.
4. That governing bodies are now too narrow, and would be improved by the infusion of a representative element.
5. That serious evils arise from the frequent powerlessness of trustees to remove an incompetent master.

6. That governing bodies, though in pecuniary matters upright, are mostly neglectful and remiss in the discharge of their trust.
7. That the Court of Chancery has not managed the affairs of schools either cheaply or successfully.
8. That fixed schemes with minute rules are often needless and always cumbersome.
9. That some central authority is needed to aid local governing bodies in administering their schools.
10. That it is practically impossible to observe the intentions of founders as respects the class of boys to be taught without violating their intentions as respects the subjects to be taught.
11. That the free schools are, as a class, in an unsatisfactory condition.
12. That there were incidental advantages attending them which it were pity to lose.
13. That in imposing fees on schools formerly free, a number of free places should always be reserved.
14. That this may best be done by using the endowment to pay to the masters the fees of the foundationers.
15. That places on the foundation should be given, if possible, by merit, and at any rate only to boys likely to profit by a superior education.
16. That exhibitions are at present of little service.
17. That they might be made much more useful by the removal of certain restrictions, and by a system of grouping.
18. That endowment funds are too sparingly used in erecting good buildings, and providing for the other external wants of schools.
19. That a provision of retiring allowances is greatly needed.
20. That the buildings of the endowed schools are for the most part ugly, dirty, small, and unwholesome.
21. That the separation of a school into an Upper and Lower division, each managed entirely apart, tends to produce social jealousies, and to injure the education of the poorer class.
22. That where trustees are reasonably vigilant, boarders may safely be admitted into grammar schools.
23. That the grammar schools do not now, as a rule, sacrifice to classics the teaching of other subjects.
24. That the Lancashire laity are indifferent to dogmatic teaching.
25. That boys of all religious denominations may be taught in the same school without its being secularized.

26. That the best solution of the supposed religious difficulty is, while enforcing the principle that no religious instruction shall be compulsory, to leave the nature and quantity of the religious instruction given to the judgment of the governing body and head master of each individual school.
27. That the appointment of assistant-masters is best vested in the head-master, a veto being perhaps retained by the trustees.
28. That the income of a teacher should not be fixed, but depend on his own exertions.
29. That until it becomes larger than it generally is now, no great improvement in schools need be hoped for.
30. That many evils have resulted from the combination of scholastic with stated clerical duties.
31. That the field of candidates for scholastic posts is injuriously narrowed by a variety of restrictions on eligibility.
32. That the present method of electing head-masters by local boards of trustees is unsatisfactory.

CHAPTER II.

Private Adventure Schools.

Before proceeding to deal with this part of the subject, a word or two must be said on the peculiar difficulties with which it is beset. Your Instructions directed me to visit and report on each individual endowed school;* and, when this had been done, the inquiry might be felt, so far as these foundations were concerned, to have reached a certain degree of completeness. Although the field was not exhausted, the facts collected were sufficiently numerous to make it possible to go on to reason from them without any great fear of having omitted vital elements in the calculation. Of the private adventure schools the same cannot be said. Their prodigious number would have made it impossible to visit and examine, in the limited time allowed me, even a half or one-third of them, nor can I suppose that the owners of all or nearly all would have welcomed a visit and the examination of their pupils. I was therefore obliged to select a certain number only, although a pretty large number, for inspection (choosing, of course, those which seemed likely to be typical), and to content myself with obtaining statistical information from those others who were found willing to supply it. Supplementing personal observation by the evidence which could be collected from parents and other persons in the towns, and endeavouring to ascertain how far the unvisited schools might be considered to be fairly represented by the visited, I had reason to believe before concluding my tour of inspection that enough had been seen and heard to make it possible to reach definite results, and that another year's labour might perhaps have thrown no great additional light upon the matter. This, however, is at best only an impression; a more exhaustive inquiry might have disclosed other phenomena, and it is therefore with hesitation and diffidence that I venture to present to you such facts and conclusions as the time and powers at my disposal enabled me to collect.

Of a second difficulty—that which arises from the extreme diversity among private schools, I need say the less that you are already well aware of it. It requires to be mentioned here only because having to say some things respecting the majority of private schools which would be quite untrue of some few, I am anxious that those schoolmasters who know that any remark does not apply to their own case should not suppose that I have forgotten them, or rashly meant to include them in any sweeping judgment.

Lastly. Endowed schools are in a manner public. One has no need to ask the master's leave to visit them, and the public interest requires that any faults which may exist in them should be pointed out, even to the disadvantage of those who conduct them. It is otherwise with private adventure schools. Having been admitted to view them by the courtesy of their owners, and received, in all but a few instances, with kindness and confidence, it would be

* *i.e.* each endowed school classical by foundation or reputation.

ungracious to say anything which could reflect upon them individually, or become the cause to them of any pecuniary injury. For this reason I cannot, as I should have otherwise desired to do, appeal for proof of what I have to state to you to facts observed in this or that private school; nor can I name and describe such as may seem to be typical, lest censure should injure them, or praise bestowed on some be taken to reflect upon others. I must, therefore, ask you to suffer this to be an apology for the brevity of the account to be now given of private schools, and for the somewhat vague and general terms in which it will be couched.

A.—General Characteristics of the Private Schools—their Origin and Management.

Number and distribution of the private schools.

Setting apart the purely rural districts, in which only the national school, the dame's school, and sometimes the petty endowed school are to be found, all of them giving elementary instruction, private adventure schools are pretty equally distributed over the whole of Lancashire. Their number, from causes to be afterwards stated, is indeed greatly smaller than its population would have led us to expect. But scarce any towns of note, even those in which there exists a flourishing grammar school, are without one or more; and in the outskirts of Manchester and Liverpool they lie very thick. Boarding schools, on the other hand, do not affect the manufacturing towns; they are chiefly to be found in the suburbs of Manchester; to a somewhat greater extent around Liverpool, especially on the Cheshire side of the Mersey; and at Southport, which for its schools, if not for its beautiful sea views, deserves the title on which it prides itself, of the Brighton of the north. Besides this, one finds every here and there through the country a school lying away from the towns, and exclusively designed for boarders. Of the total number of private schools it is not in my power to give any estimate. In each town of consequence that I visited, a little trouble enabled me to ascertain the names and reputation of most of the schools. But in Manchester and Liverpool, from their vast size, and in many of the places just rising from villages into towns, such as Milnrow (near Rochdale), Farnworth and Hindley (near Bolton and Wigan), Padiham and Darwen (in the valley of the Ribble), places where schools are opened one year and closed the next, it would have been mere loss of time to make such an attempt. The directories are not to be relied on in the case of the minor towns, for while they omit a good many, they insert others as private schools which are really endowed or even national. Thus the only data would be those furnished by the census returns (now several years old), and those of the Income Tax Commissioners. Neither of these, however, so far as I have been able to discover, class private schoolmasters as a profession. The following facts may, however, serve to throw some light on the matter.

Impossibility of unearthing all of them.

Bolton in 1861 had 70,395 inhabitants (Parliamentary limits). It has, besides a grammar school, and a large proprietary school, at least five private boys' day schools. Wigan (population 37,658) has at least four private boys' schools besides a grammar school.

Accrington (population 17,688) has no grammar school, and two private schools. Warrington (population 24,050) has a grammar school and not more than two private boys' schools. Rochdale (population 38,184) has a grammar school and three or four private schools. Oldham (population 72,333) has a grammar and three private schools. Ormskirk (population 6,426) has a grammar school and one private school. Ramsbottom (population 8,000*) has no grammar school, and, as I was informed, though I cannot vouch for the statement, no private school of any kind designed for persons above the rank of labourers.

Their social position compared with endowed schools.

Respecting the social status of private schools, compared with endowed or proprietary, it is hard to make any general statement. The very highest (*i.e.* richest) class of Lancashire people sends its sons to be educated away from home. Of those who remain, the majority in Liverpool go to one or other of the two great public schools of the town—the College and the Royal Institution, while the private schools within and close to the town are, as a rule, filled by a somewhat poorer class. In Manchester professional people prefer the grammar school, and the richer mercantile men the private schools, several of which are worthy of their confidence. In the manufacturing towns the grammar school is usually the more genteel place of education, and the private schools are filled by the children of the smaller tradespeople and clerks, with perhaps a few among the best paid artizans. Setting the foundation or public schools, as a whole, against the private adventure ones, the upper classes appear to prefer the former, though it must be confessed that they prefer education away from home to either.

"Gentility" and "selectness."

It is partly to this cause, partly also to the peculiar circumstances of a manufacturing district, where every one is fighting his way into wealth, that the Lancashire schools are not greatly afflicted by the demon of gentility. I do not know indeed that there are any private schools in which it appears in a more disagreeable form than it does in those endowed grammar schools (already described) where children of different ranks are to be found in the "upper" and "lower" division respectively. The so-called social difficulty is less considerable in private schools, whose fees, if they profess themselves at all select, are high enough to practically exclude the children of most tradespeople. Moreover both the manufacturer or merchant who desires "selectness," and the rich tradesman who wants his boy to rise into a higher "social sphere," send their children to boarding schools at a distance—it may be even to the public schools of the south—bidding them gain friends and lose their Lancashire tongue. That this social difficulty, however, is itself a chimera, the child of upstart pride and mean suspicion, was the testimony of nearly every schoolmaster whom I questioned on the subject. Boys, they said, would not think of despising each other for their fathers' occupations, nor very greatly even for the contrast of broadcloth and corduroys, if the notion was not put

* The population of the ecclesiastical district of Ramsbottom was, in 1861, 4,134, but the population within a radius of two miles from the centre of the town can hardly be less than 8,000.

into their heads by older people. It was not, they added, the poor boys who were most generally troublesome in the school, nor did they find that other boys learnt bad words or rude manners from them; the tendency rather was for the rougher boys to be themselves refined by the contact. I give this evidence as it was given me; my own observation was not sufficient to enable me to form an opinion on the matter, though so far as it went it confirmed the truth of these statements.

External aspect of private schools.

Respecting the private adventure school, as viewed from without,—its origin, character, and management, as compared with that of the endowed school, there is very little to be said. It would be interesting to know the average duration of such schools, but there are no data on which a calculation can be based. Apparently the life of the private school is short, shorter than that of most commercial concerns, and less regularly transmitted by sale or inheritance than a surgeon's practice. In Lancashire, at least, there are very few that can trace themselves back 30 or even 20 years, and few now existing which seem, judging from their buildings and general air, designed by their owners for a long life in the future. The profession of teaching, which is everywhere in a somewhat fluctuating condition, is, as might be expected, peculiarly unstable in a district where population is rapidly increasing, and where men, tempted by the prospect of swift success, are constantly forsaking one path of life for another. Lancashire is a miniature America. It frequently happened to me, after sending a circular to a teacher asking for information respecting his school, to be answered that he had abandoned the profession, having got a place in an office or gone into business on his own account. Occasionally he would add that the school had been handed over to some other person, but more frequently it seemed to have wholly disappeared. The converse process is, of course, equally common, and as people, having failed in school-keeping, take to trade, so others who have failed in trade take to school-keeping. Both sets of instances show that school-keeping is not supposed to require any peculiar qualifications; it differs, let us say, from the dry goods line as much as and no more than the dry goods line differs from the hardware.

Their origin and duration.

Perpetual flux of schools into newer towns.

Thus, in a neighbourhood where there is no grammar school, it is very much a matter of chance whether there is at a given time any kind of provision for the education of the better class. Generally speaking, a private school, like a bookshop, appears where it has a prospect of success; but the schoolmaster may die or depart and no successor appear for some years; or the successor, who has perhaps purchased the school, may be incompetent or ill-conducted. Thus many of the smaller towns of the county are almost without the means of instruction, except so far as the National and British schools supply them. I often heard this or something like this said, "We had a good commercial school here, kept by Mr. C., till about "five years ago, when he removed to Cheshire. Since then there has "been no place to send the children to. To be sure we have heard "that a Mr. D. has opened a school at the other end of the town, a

" few months ago ; but we don't like to let the boys go there till we " know what it is like." As this instability has hitherto prevented the private schools, taken collectively, from sufficiently meeting the educational needs of the county, so as regards each individual school it is found an evil not less serious than that opposite evil of immoveability which besets the endowed schools. A private "establishment" has no time to acquire the character and reputation which often belong to the foundation school. Old pupils have no bond to link them to it; certainly none reaching beyond the life of a popular master. It is like an Indian town in the prairie, attached to nothing that has preceded it, and leaving, when the tribe moves, no trace behind it.

The genesis of private schools.

Just as few people adopt the profession of a schoolmaster deliberately and after due preparation for its duties, so schools themselves seem in Lancashire to rise almost by accident. Some person who, in default of anything else to do, has engaged himself as assistant in such and such an academy, thinks of setting up on his own account, after ten years' experience, procures a house in a neighbourhood where he hears of an opening, and begins to advertise. Or perhaps he settles himself hard by, and makes a beginning by drawing away some of the pupils of his old employer. Very often a clergyman, whether of the Church of England or of some Nonconforming body, having wanted interest to get a cure or been unsuccessful as a preacher, takes a lease of a large house in the country and opens a boarding-school, trusting for pupils to the efforts of his friends and to advertising. A really large and flourishing school is of course a marketable commodity, and sometimes sells well. But it is always a dangerous purchase for a stranger. Parents are capricious, trade is uncertain, everything depends on the teacher's health, and, if it be a boarding-school, on his wife's management. Thus few people care to sink any great capital in buildings and fittings, and when the school declines the house is let for a shop or a private residence, and the master betakes himself elsewhere.

Advantages and drawbacks of the profession.

Considered commercially, few descriptions of business seems to require less capital and fewer preliminary operations than the keeping of a private day school of the second order. A house is taken, a cane and a map of England bought, an advertisement inserted, and the master has nothing more to do but teach, engage assistants as he requires them, and endeavour, as he best may, to make his school known among parents in the neighbourhood. The thing is far less complex than an endowed school with its trustees and statutes, and perhaps with a second master in possession. It adapts itself more readily to the wants of the place, and may be made a more perfect reflection of the ideas of the teacher, who is unfettered by tradition or by the commands of a governing body. But the private schoolmaster has, on the other hand, corresponding difficulties to contend with, which press far less heavily on the grammar school master; and it is in skilfully meeting these, even more than in good teaching, that the secret of his success lies. His position is less established and less independent. At starting he has to make his school known. Throughout his career he must

apply himself to please the parents. Of this latter difficulty I will speak first.

Relation of the teacher to the parents of his pupils.

Upon no point were the representations which I encountered more varying and conflicting than on this one—the behaviour of parents towards schoolmasters. One teacher would declare himself worried and vexed out of his life by constant interference. He would dilate on the unreasonable demands they made of him, and their equally unreasonable carpings and objections brought against his rules and methods, on the carelessness which will not make the children attend regularly, and the over-careful stinginess which shows itself in the matter of fees and school-books.* Others drew a brighter picture. Parents, they said, not without a self-complacent insinuation of their own tact, were always willing to adopt their suggestions, to let the boy learn Latin or pneumatics, as the case might be, to support them when any case of discipline occurred, to pay punctually and without grumbling. Cross-examination of the complainant masters and intercourse with the parents themselves made this latter view seem nearer to the truth than the unfavourable one. An energetic and sound-judging man may almost always lead the parents and have most things in the school ordered at his own pleasure. There are indeed some things which he must do, and others which he will be tempted to do, unwelcome to a person of spirit. He must, except in a few, a very few of the chief schools, teach classics and mathematics almost by stealth. He must speak of the commercial subjects as if they were all important. He finds it to his advantage to defer to the absurd custom, which still lingers in the north of England, of making the boy execute, in a book to be carried home and inspected, elaborate pieces of penmanship, and copy out with painful neatness and a profusion of conventional ornament sums in arithmetic and problems in mensuration, sums and problems which he could not work if they were to be dictated to him by an examiner. When a school, however, is once firmly established, the master may with impunity, if he has any of the qualities which command respect, assume an independent attitude towards parents, and make them feel themselves his debtors rather than his benefactors. These considerations go far to explain the discrepancy in the representations made by teachers regarding their position. The truth seems to be that parents, especially those of lower social rank, do not interfere much, even with a private schoolmaster who is almost at their mercy. He has far more reason to complain of their sins of omission. They seldom co-operate with him in compelling or encouraging their children to apply with assiduity to their studies. They do not feel or manifest towards him personally that respect which a member of a liberal profession, charged with such weighty duties, ought to receive. The first of these defects will continue until parents, and especially business men, learn to value education more than they do now; or in other words, until a great change

Necessity of deferring to certain prejudices and follies.

* Schoolmasters often gave me amusing instances. One, I remember, showed me a letter he had just received from a parent, containing this sentence, "I desire that Tom shall learn neither geometry, geology, nor geography."

passes upon the minds of Englishmen. The second will be lessened or removed by whatever measures tend to raise the power and emoluments of the scholastic profession.

Means by which private schools make themselves known.

As regards the other difficulty, perhaps the greatest under which private adventure schools labour, I found a singular concurrence of testimony from opposite quarters. Parents deplored the want of any certain means of learning where they might safely place their children. Schoolmasters, at least many among the better ones, complained that they had no opportunity of approving their own fitness, that those of them who had with pains and at great expense prepared themselves for the work of teaching were jostled by a herd of impudent pretenders, to whose arts they could not condescend, but who, for a time at least, outstripped them in the race. It was the same difficulty, seen from opposite points. Thoughtful parents were earnestly seeking for skilful and upright teachers; skilful and upright teachers had not the means wherewith to commend themselves to thoughtful parents. What was wanted was a medium of communication, and none such appeared. None such, at least, adequate to the need. The several which are in operation may be shortly stated.

External testimony to the master's fitness.

(*a*) Degrees and titles.

(*a*.) Recognized qualification of the master. Of these the most obvious is a university degree. Every one knows how worthless, as a test of teaching power and a witness to moral character, a University degree is; but its value is beside the question here, for only a very small minority of the private school masters in Lancashire possess it at all. Its influence, moreover, is materially lessened by the ease with which genuine degrees from British universities of established character may be and are counterfeited by degrees bought in Germany and America, or perhaps assumed without even the form of purchase. I do not know that this has gone far among the Lancashire teachers, but one notorious case which came under my observation may be worth mentioning. Seeing in the schoolroom of a private seminary the diploma, framed and hung up, by which the university of Weissnichtwo conferred the degree of doctor of philosophy upon the schoolmaster (who, by the way, called himself not Ph.D. but M.A.,*) I inquired into the circumstances which had led to his receiving the honour: "I obtained it," said he, "after a very severe examination; their standard at Weissnichtwo is remarkably high." There was no reason to doubt the authenticity of the diploma, but as the high standard did not include an acquaintance with so much as the rudiments of Latin or any other grammar, or a knowledge of the simplest facts of history (as appeared incidentally in the sequel of our conversation), one could not but wonder what would be thought a low standard at Weissnichtwo. It would be unwarrantable to throw a slur upon all German degrees, since some of the universities in that country are as careful as our own in dispensing their honours, but it is evident that in the present state of things neither M.A. or Ph.D. can be held to afford any security. Still

* He had this contemptible pretext for his deception that the German title is "Doctor philosophiæ atque magister artium." But I doubt if he knew this, for he could not have translated his diploma from Latin into English.

less, of course, do the other strings of letters which some private schoolmasters may be seen tacking to their names. If M.R.C.P., for instance, indicated that its bearer had passed any of the examinations of the Royal College of Preceptors, it would not be without its value. But as it merely indicates that he has during the current year paid 1*l.* 1*s.* 0*d.* to the funds of that body, it can have none; and one cannot but regret that a respectable institution should suffer its name and credit to be abused in this impudent way.

(*b.*) Another expedient has been found in the recently instituted public examinations, such as those for direct commissions and for the Home Civil Service; those imposed by the incorporated law societies, and by the Apothecaries' Company; and those which are conducted at various local centres by the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. The schoolmasters whose boys pass with credit in these various trials can, it may be thought, appeal to their success as a proof of their own capacity and industry. To the subject of the University local examinations it will be necessary to recur, so that it may be sufficient to say in passing, that none of these remedies is at all sufficient to meet the evil. The boys who go from Lancashire to any of the four examinations first named are an inappreciably small proportion of the whole number of boys attending school. And both they and those who pass under the hands of the Oxford or Cambridge examiner belong, as a rule, to the wealthier section of what is called the middle class, and are the sons of parents comparatively well able to pay high for education and to judge of its worth. On the great bulk of the commercial class and its schools these examinations exercise, in Lancashire, no perceptible influence.

(*b*) Examinations of single pupils.

(*c.*) The school, however, may itself be examined, and the performances of the boys publicly tested in the presence of their parents and friends. Or if the masters are distrusted, some eminent stranger may be brought down to set papers to them and give in his report for publication. Both devices are resorted to in Lancashire, and apparently to the edification of many guileless parents. Such examinations may doubtless be, and sometimes are, conducted with perfect honesty, but when the teacher questions in public, he cannot help questioning on the very things he has made the boy accustomed to, so that the boys' oral answers are really no test at all. Examination by a stranger is valuable if the stranger himself is qualified by knowledge and experience, and has no motive to gratify the master. If he is not, and especially if he is a mere creature of the schoolmaster's, it is probably a trick and certainly a delusion. In one instance I remember to have seen such a person's report, which I should have been glad to print here had it been allowable to do so—a report printed for circulation among parents, in which praise was bestowed in fulsome though ungrammatical terms, on a school which a slight examination showed to be hopelessly ill taught and ignorant.

(*c*) Examination of the school: the "distinguished stranger."

(*d.*) Sometimes, also, what may be called the prize 'dodge' is resorted to. The system of school marks for lessons and conduct

(*d*) Prizes.

is so arranged that every boy gets a prize—it may be several —it may even be many prizes;* and the father and mother who are informed of this gratifying fact in the half-yearly report of their son's progress, or in the printed prize list of the establishment, are delighted to know that Tom is so much more clever and diligent than they had supposed, and cannot but give Mr. So-and-so the credit of having awakened his dormant powers. So far as my observation goes, it is only in boarding-schools that this plan is carried out, the profit on each boy in a day-school being too small to make it worth while to go to the expense of 2*s.* 6*d.* per head in prize books. In other forms, however, the same sort of trick appears even there. I remember a case in one of the manufacturing towns, where the schoolmaster exultingly told me that at one of his grand prize distributions in a public hall he had offered a gold medal, to be worth I forget how much, for proficiency in classics. "Has it ever been gained?" I inquired. "No," he answered naïvely (conceit overpowering his shrewdness); "no one has ever yet come up to our standard." By dint of his bombastic manner this man had gained a considerable name among the tradespeople of the town, and was making money far faster than many of his brethren who would have been ashamed of him.

(*e*) Advertisements.

(*e.*) After all it is only in exceptional cases that one meets with such artifices as these. For the great bulk of schoolmasters there are but two ways of making themselves known to the world—common rumour—a character spreading slowly from parent to parent—and advertising. The better class announce through the newspapers only their terms and the day when their school meets, adding perhaps something about their boys who have passed the University local, or some other examination; others go off into those painful phrases which everyone knows so well, and talk of "the comforts of a luxurious home combined with close attention to the development of the moral and intellectual powers." On the whole, however, the Lancashire schools—at least the day-schools —are not particularly given to puffing, and a comparison of the advertisements in the Manchester Guardian or Manchester Examiner with those which may be read any day in the Times or Daily Telegraph is somewhat to the disadvantage of the metropolis. That any parents should be found to trust an advertisement, that they should be less careful in choosing the man to whom they entrust their children than the man of whom they buy their tea and sugar, passes comprehension. But it must be so, for schoolmasters find it to their profit to advertise in districts far remote from those in which they live, and whence a boy must be sent merely at random by the father who is foolish enough to send him at all. There is, for instance, a Manchester boarding-school, and a bad one it is, whose advertisements I remember to have seen in the newspapers of a distant part of Ireland. As for the causes which lead a father to choose one day-school in his neighbourhood rather than another they are too numerous and too petty to mention. If the

* I met with a case in which one boy gained twenty-two.

master is connected with a particular congregation its members often think themselves called upon to support him. Or he may have been known as teacher in the National or British School before setting up his present one, a ground of confidence which is worth something, though not so much as might appear. Most probably, however, the choice is determined merely by proximity, and by the fact that a neighbour's son was there and brought back a copybook decorated with swans wreathed in a cloud of flourishes.* I speak, of course, chiefly of schools of the lower social grade, schools included in what is described below as class B. With regard to the higher day-schools, the evil, though it does exist, is palliated by their comparatively high terms, which lead people to make some closer inquiries into the quality of the education given. They complain, however, even here, of the impossibility of finding evidence on which they can really rely.

B.—Of the Organization of Private Schools.

Internal organization of private schools.

In their organization and internal arrangements private schools are generally simple, and that for the obvious reason that in most of them there is so little to arrange. They are, as a rule, of small size, above the average of a girls' school, but either below or little above that of a grammar school of the same class, and, it need hardly be said, very much smaller than the National or British schools in towns. Fifty or sixty may perhaps be taken as the average number of pupils.

Their size.

To distribute the private adventure schools into classes analogous to those already distinguished among the endowed is not an easy task, since both in their charges and in the instruction they give there is an uninterrupted gradation from the highest to the lowest. Still we may, upon the whole, distinguish two types—those marked above as A and B.† The schools grouped under the former head profess to give a complete liberal, *i.e.*, classical and commercial education, they are usually more or less "select" in the class of boys whom they receive, and their fees are as high or higher than those of the endowed grammar schools in their neighbourhood. Those placed under B are very much cheaper and plainer, and although they may occasionally teach a little Latin or Euclid, are in the main purely commercial schools. As has been said, there are of course many schools whose fees and social rank place them in an intermediate position, and to these the account to be given either of class A or of B will not in all respects apply. To one or other, however, of these two strongly contrasted types the great bulk may practically be referred; and it will probably conduce to clearness if, instead of making explanations and reserva-

* One school in the suburbs of Manchester was frequently mentioned to me as having gained its not inconsiderable success entirely by the ornamental penmanship books of the boys. Its owner prudently declined (by silence) to have anything to do with the Commission.

† Leaving, for the moment, boarding schools out of consideration.

—	Total No. of school hours per week.	Total No. of Boys.	No. of boys learning Religious knowledge.	No. of Hours per week spent thereon.	Greek.	Hours per week.	Latin.	Hours per week.	French.	Hours per week.	German.	Hours per week.	Arithmetic.	Hours per week.	Book-keeping.	Hours per week.	Mensuration and Surveying.	Hours per week.	Mathematics.	Hours per week.	Physics.	Hours per week.
Typical A. (a)	28	34	22	2	—	—	18	3	5	2	—	—	34	4	7	2	—	—	6	2	—	—
(b)	35¼ 38½ = about 37	23	—	—	3	¼	23	3	17	2	13	—	23	¾	—	—	—	—	13	1½	—	—
(c)	26	110	—	—	1½	3	90	5	90	2	20	2	110	3	12	—	—	—	43	4	10	3
(d)	27	22	—	—	3	2	20	4	20	2	2	2	22	5	2	3	—	2	22	3	—	—
(e)	30	27	—	3	—	—	27	2	20	2	—	1	27	4	—	—	—	—	10	2¼	—	1
(f)	26	36	28	—	—	—	16	2	33	2	3	—	36	—	—	—	—	—	8	—	16	4
Total	174	252	49	5	21	5½	194	19	185	13	38	7¼	252	19 ¼	21	6½	10	2	102	13	26	4

(*continued.*)

—	Total No. of hours per week.	Total No. of boys.	Natural History.	Hours per week.	Chemistry.	Hours per week.	History.	Hours per week.	Geography.	Hours per week.	English Grammar.	Hours per week.	English Literature.	Hours per week.	English Composition.	Hours per week.	Reading.	Hours per week.	Writing.	Hours per week.	Drawing.	Hours per week.	Music.	Hours per week.	Other subjects.	Hours per week.
Typical A. (a)	28	34	7	—	—	—	34	3	34	3	34	3	—	—	given at intervals. Taught with other lessons.	—	34	1½	34	2	22	1	—	1	— Phonography. 5 | ¼	—
(b)	35¼ 38½ = about 37	23	23	¼	23	1½	23	2	23	1½	23	1½	9	1			In various groups according to the arrangements in other classes.				23	3				
(c)	26	110	47	1	40	2	110	1½	110	1½	110	1½	10	1½	110	1	67	2	90	—	95	1	14	1	Singing. 2 | 24 Drill Gymnastics 20 | 40 Singing. 16 | — Drilling. — | — Social Economy. 28 | 1	—
(d)	27	22	22	occasionally.	—	—	22	3	22	1	22	occasionally. 1½	—	—	22	—	14	—	14	—	14	—	8	—		
(e)	30	27	—	—	10	1½	27	3	27	3	27	3	20	1	25	1	—	—	27	2¼	20	2	20	—		
(f)	26	36	28	1	—	—	36	2	36	2	36	2	—	—	16	2	36	3¾	36	2¼	36	1½	36	1½		
Total	174	252	127	2½	73	5	252	14½	252	12	252	9¾	39	3¼	173	4	151	7¼	201	6½	210	9½	81	5	—	—

—	Total No. of hours per week.	Total No. of boys.	Religious knowledge.	Hours per week.	Greek.	Hours per week.	Latin.	Hours per week.	French.	Hours per week.	German.	Hours per week.	Arithmetic.	Hours per week.	Book-keeping.	Hours per week.	Mensuration and Surveying.	Hours per week.	Mathematics.	Hours per week.	Physics.	Hours per week.
Typical B. (g)	30	60	—	—	—	—	37	3	16	3	—	—	48	1	16	1	12	1	21	7	21	—
(h)	36	75	—	—	—	—	—	—	38	4½	—	—	70	7½	26	2	6	5	17	1½	—	—
(i)	40	65	—	—	—	—	12	4	—	—	—	—	63	6	1	—	9	4	12	4½	—	—
(k)	30	56	—	—	—	—	10	—	10	—	—	—	56	5	5	—	6	—	—	—	—	—
(l)	30	80	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2½	—	—	66	10	12	2	—	—	—	—	—	—
(m)	29½	47	47	1	—	—	19	3½	6	—	—	—	47	4½	25	1	11	3	11	2	—	—
Total	195½	383	115	6	—	—	78	10½	70	10	—	—	350	332	85	6	44	13	61	15	21	—

(*continued.*)

—	Total No. of hours per week.	Total No. of boys.	Natural History.	Hours per week.	Chemistry.	Hours per week.	History.	Hours per week.	Geography.	Hours per week.	English Grammar.	Hours per week.	English Literature.	Hours per week.	English Composition.	Hours per week.	Reading.	Hours per week.	Writing.	Hours per week.	Music.	Hours per week.	Drawing.	Hours per week.	Other subjects.	Hours per week.
Typical B. (g)	30	60	—	—	30	1	60	2	60	1	60	2	—	—	60	—	60	—	60	2	2	—	20	3	Mapping 60 — 1 Derivations 60 — 1 Dictation. 60 — 1 Drill 20 — 1 Piano 14 — 4½	—
(h)	36	75	—	—	—	—	50	3	50	3	50	3	—	—	50	5	50	5	50	5	60	1	70	—	Spelling. 65 — 2 Dictation 65 — 2	—
(i)	40	65	—	—	—	—	56	2	60	1	56	½	—	—	9	1	65	1	65	4	—	—	4	—	— — —	—
(k)	30	56	—	—	—	—	—	—	50	—	50	—	—	—	30	—	56	—	56	—	—	—	40	—	Mental Arithc. 45 2	—
(l)	30	80	—	—	—	—	14	2	28	3	30	5	—	—	—	—	80	5	80	5	—	—	—	—		—
(m)	29½	47	—	—	—	—	38	2	47	1	45	3	—	—	45	¾	47	4	47	2½	—	—	—	—		—
Total	195½	383	—	1	30	1	218	11	295	9	291	13½	—	—	194	3¼	358	15	358	18½	62	1	134	3	—	—

tions respecting those not so referable, I go on to describe each of the two classes separately, taking them to represent the whole. In a table printed opposite will be seen the statistics of six schools of each class, selected as typical.

The upper class, or "classical and commercial" schools.

The schools belonging to what has been called class A are almost all in or near Manchester and Liverpool. There is nothing about their arrangements to require special remark or to distinguish them from respectable schools of the same status in other parts of England. In the few, perhaps not above three or four, whose numbers exceeded 100 there was sometimes a division into an upper and lower, or into a preparatory and senior department; but this was always a division made by age and general progress, not by the presence or absence of classics, and never, as in some grammar schools, by social distinctions. As their fees are comparatively high, the pupils are generally of the same rank in society; and as classics are subordinated to the more practical studies, there is no reason for making a boy's position depend on his progress in that branch alone.

Teaching staff.

The staff of masters varied according to the pretensions of the school, but was generally larger in proportion to the number of the boys than in endowed schools. The proportion of teachers to boys will be seen by referring to the tables opposite, the six schools taken being fairly typical.

There was often a teacher expressly for French, occasionally for natural science, more rarely for a subject which the private schools are too apt to undervalue—mathematics. With these exceptions, each assistant taught whatever came in his way, and the head-master dealt with the most advanced boys in every subject. It is no doubt a serious evil that the attention of the head-master should be thus distracted among a variety of subjects, all of which he cannot possibly teach well; and it is a necessary but unfortunate result of the small size of most of these schools that they should be broken up into a number of petty classes, each of some five or six boys only. The masters, however, declare that they are thus enabled to have an intimate personal knowledge of each pupil, and so to secure his progress; and many parents, believing this, and thinking that their boy is more important as one of 40 than as one of 200, prefer the small school, however high its charges, or however mean its exterior.

Occasional excellence of rooms and furniture.

In some three or four of the best and largest of such schools, I was much struck by the excellence of the rooms and of the external appliances generally. Their owners had made a study of ventilation and of the construction and disposal of school furniture; the apartments were not only neat and airy, but comfortable—almost luxurious. Globes, plans, and maps were supplied without stint; each boy had his desk with a place in it for everything he needed, and if the workmen, the assistant-masters, had been as good as their tools, there would have been nothing further to desire. These were of course expensive places.

The cheaper and purely "commercial" schools.

The schools classed under B—those mainly or wholly commercial —exhibit phenomena widely different. The average size of those

	No. of Boys in attendance.	Proportion of Masters to Boys.	Average duration of the stay of a boy at school.	Average cost of a good education.	Average cost of French when an extra.	Average cost of drawing when an extra.	No. of Assistant Masters.	Salaries of Assistant Masters.
			Years.	Juniors. Seniors.				
(a)	55	1 to 18 (also a visiting master.)	6	6*l.* 6*s.* 8*l.* 8*s.*	4*l.* 4*s.*	—	2, and French and drawing visiting masters.	Senior master (mathematics), 25*l.* Junior do. do., 20*l.* French do. 4*l.* 4*s.* each pupil per annum.
(b)	28	1 to 9 - - -	—	Boarders only (who pay 84*l.*, all extras included, except washing).	—	—	2	Classical master, 120*l.* Mathematical do., 100*l.*
(c)	110	1 to 18 (also 8 occasional or visiting masters).	6	12*l.* 18*l.*	—	2*l.*	5, and 8 occasional or visiting masters.	Salaries vary from 20*l.* to 130*l.*
(d)	22	1 to 3 - - -	4	16*l.* 16*s.* 21*l.*	6*l.* 6*s.*	6*l.* 6*s.*	6	Drilling master, 20*l.* French do., 6*l.* 6*s.* each pupil per annum, Drawing do., 6*l.* 6*s.* „ „ German do., 6*l.* 6*s.* „ „ Music do., 6*l.* 6*s.* „ „ Mathematical do., 50*l.* per annum.
(e)	30	1 to 15 (also an occasional visiting master).	6	12*l.* 12*s.* 16*l.* 16*s.*	4*l.* 4*s.*	4*l.* 4*s.* (included if paying full fees).	1 governess.	
(f)	36	1 to 7 (also 4 visiting masters.)	—	3*l.* 13*s.* 6*d.* 5*l.* 5*s.*	—	—	4, and 4 visiting masters.	Resident master, 50*l.* 2nd assistant master, 60*l.* 3rd do., 50*l.* 4th do., 50*l.* *Visiting Masters.* French master, 80*l.* German do., 20*l.* Drill do., 35*l.* (twice a week). Dancing do., 40*l.* (once a week)
(a)	60	1 to 30 (also three visiting masters).	4½	8*l.* 8*s.* 10*l.* 10*s.*	2*l.* 2*s.*	2*l.* 2*s.*	(Two head masters partners). 0; 3 visiting masters.	*Visiting Masters* Classical master, 25*l.* (2 hours a week). Drawing do., 30*l.* (3 hours a week). French do., 15*l.* to 25*l.* (3 hours a week).
(b)	75	1 to 75 (also two visiting masters).	—	3*l.* 4*l.* 4*s.*	—	—	0; 2 visiting masters.	*Visiting Masters.* French master, 2*s.* 6*d.* per hour (4½ hours per week). Music master (vocal), 3*s.* 6*d.* per hour (1 hour per week). Music (piano) 1*s.* per hour (4½ hours per week).
(c)	65	1 to 32 - - -	2½	6*l.* 8*l.* 8*s.*	—	—	1	Assistant master, 10*l.* to 12*l.* per year (no board).
(d)	56	—	4	6*l.* 6*s.* 6*l.* 6*s.*	2*l.* 2*s.*	—	(No information).	Assistant masters, 30*l.* to 50*l.* with board.
(e)	80	—	4	— —	—	—	(No information).	
(f)	50	—	4	4*l.* 4*s.* 6*l.* 6*s.*	2*l.* 2*s.*	—	1 (Master's wife).	

* These 12 schools are with one or two exceptions (caused by the imperfection of the Returns) the same as those chosen as typical in the former Tables.

which I visited, whether in the greater or lesser towns, was from 40 to 50 boys; and where girls were received along with boys, from 50 to 70. They were usually taught by one master single-handed; sometimes an usher was also to be found, very much resembling the pupil-teacher in a government school; more rarely still there were two assistants. The classes were larger than in schools of the A type, not because there were more boys, but because there were fewer subjects and less attempt at exact distribution according to educational progress. It was here, therefore, that all the vices of the small school system appeared in their most glaring light.

Evils of the small school system.

Since the teachers are few and the rooms small, boys at different stages of advancement are necessarily classed and taught together. The teacher, while questioning one class in geography, is interrupted by the arithmeticians of another, who come up at intervals of four or five minutes with their slates. The classes are not large enough to get up any momentum, or to make the teacher—unless naturally a gifted person—feel the need of strict order and system in requiring every boy to keep abreast of his fellows. The school, as a whole, is too small even to play its games with spirit. The rooms, it is hardly necessary to say, are, with rare exceptions, those of a private house, sometimes left as they were, sometimes enlarged by knocking down a partition. Generally they are low roofed, ill-ventilated, and altogether unwholesome. I have met with cases in which the whole floor of a low-ceilinged room was covered so thick with boys that there was hardly room to move about. The air was, of course, insupportably fetid. There is either no playground or a very insufficient one; often it is a tiny back yard surrounded by houses.

Causes of these evils: poverty of the schools.

Among the masters of these schools I found several men of character and ability who were doing their best under great disadvantages. The disadvantages, however, were such as could hardly be overcome. The profit of the concern is not sufficient to enable the owner to procure the services of competent assistants, or to hire suitable premises; and the value of the property is at all times uncertain and fluctuating. Parents are whimsical, and if a new school is started by a popular man, supported by a denomination or by some influential private friends, the old schoolmaster may lose his living without any fault of his own. Hence he does not play boldly for a high stake; he dare not build expensive schoolrooms or hire a highly paid staff.

Short stay of the pupils.

There is another fruitful source of confusion and imperfection which, though it exists in all the Lancashire schools, exists more fatally in private schools of this class. Boys come and go at random and remain on an average a very short time in the school. They come, moreover, with every sort of previous training and in all conditions of knowledge, or rather of ignorance. Many are from National and British schools, where manners are usually very rough, and where, if the report of the private schoolmasters is to be accepted, they are prepared no better than in ladies' schools. Before the teacher has had time to hew these rough boys into

TYPICAL A.

Total No. of boys in six typical schools, A.	No. of boys learning.		Total No. of boys in the schools which teach each of these subjects respectively.	Total No. of hours per week during which boys are at work in school in the six typical schools, 'A.'	Total No. of hours per week during which boys are at work in learning each subject respectively.		Total No. of hours per week during which boys are engaged on all subjects in schools teaching each several subject.
252	Religious Knowledge.	49	61	174	Religious Knowledge.	5	58
	Greek - -	21	61	(That is an	Greek - -	5½	90
	Latin - -	194	252	average of	Latin - -	19	174
	French - -	185	252	29 hours	French - -	13	174
	German - -	38	191	in each	German - -	7¼	116
	Arithmetic -	252	252	of the six	Arithmetic -	19½	174
	Book-keeping -	21	171	schools).	Book-keeping -	6½	84
	Mensuration and Surveying.	10	27		Mensuration and Surveying.	2	30
	Mathematics -	102	252		Mathematics -	13	174
	Physics - -	26	146		Physics -	4	52
	Natural History -	127	225		Natural History -	2½	89
	Chemistry -	73	160		Chemistry -	5	93
	History - -	252	252		History - -	14½	174
	Geography -	252	252		Geography -	12	174
	Eng. Grammar -	252	252		Eng. Grammar -	9½	147
	Eng. Literature -	39	160		Eng. Literature -	3½	93
	Eng. Composition	173	195		Eng. Composition	4	82
	Reading - -	151	202		Reading - -	7¼	80
	Writing - -	201	229		Writing - -	6½	84
	Music - -	81	218		Music - -	5	117
	Drawing - -	250	252		Drawing - -	9½	147

TYPICAL B.

383	Religious Knowledge.	115	122	195½	Religious Knowledge.	6	65½
	Greek - -	—	—	(That is an	Greek - -	—	—
	Latin - -	78	228	average of	Latin - -	10½	99½
	French - -	70	238	$32\frac{7}{13}$ hours	French - -	10	95½
	German - -	—	—	in each of	German - -	—	—
	Arithmetic -	350	383	the six	Arithmetic -	33½	195½
	Book-keeping -	85	383	schools).	Book-keeping -	6	125½
	Mensuration and Surveying.	44	303		Mensuration and Surveying.	13	135½
	Mathematics -	61	247		Mathematics -	15	135½
	Physics - -	21	60		Physics - -	—	—
	Natural History -	—	—		Natural History -	—	—
	Chemistry -	30	60		Chemistry -	1	30
	History - -	218	327		History - -	11	165½
	Geography -	295	383		Geography -	9	165½
	Eng. Grammar -	291	383		Eng. Grammar -	13½	165½
	Eng. Literature -	—	—		Eng. Literature -	—	—
	Eng. Composition	194	303		Eng. Composition	3¼	105½
	Reading - -	358	383		Reading - -	15	135½
	Writing - -	358	383		Writing - -	18½	165½
	Music - -	62	135		Music - -	1	36
	Drawing - -	134	256		Drawing - -	3	30

shape, they are taken away from him, and the same process has to begin afresh with others. Thus the normal state of these schools is confusion and disorganization, and the pupil rarely passes under the firm grasp of a system. These evils, it is true, may also be remarked in many of the grammar schools; but it cannot be hoped that here, as in the case of the grammar schools, they will abate with an increase in the number of pupils and an improvement in the buildings. These private schools, not having the vantage ground of a foundation school, are kept down by each other's competition; they rise and fall too quickly to gain a hold in the neighbourhood; the risk of failure is too great to make it safe to start them on a grand scale.

Fees charged at private schools.

The fees charged in the private schools, and the compass and quantity of the instruction given in them, bear so exact a relation to one another that it is best to consider them together. What these fees are may be seen from the Tables already referred to. Taking one school with another, it may be said that the average cost of a good education in a private day school, including Latin, with some little Greek, mathematics, French, and the English and commercial subjects, is from 12*l.* 12*s.* to 21*l.* per annum. Similarly a plain commercial and English education costs 4*l.* 4*s.* to 8*l.* 8*s.* An education scarcely more than elementary, *i.e.*, reading, writing, and arithmetic, with glimpses of geography and crumbs of grammar —may be had for 3*l.* 3*s.* French, when an extra, averages 2*l.* 2*s.* per annum; drawing, from 2*l.* 2*s.* to 3*l.* 3*s.*

The fees are here a far more perfect index of the social status of the school than is the case with endowed schools, and correspond more exactly with the quantity and description of the education given. Above the line of 6*l.* or 8*l.* per annum the commercial school begins to pass into the classical, and the 16*l.* or 20*l.* school is pretty certain to undertake not only classics and modern languages but chemistry, gymnastics, and popular lectures on natural history. But of the quality of the education—of the excellence of the teaching, the cost of a school is of course no index at all; and cases are not unknown in which a bad school succeeds by charging high fees, parents believing that expensive goods are probably better, and that a dear school must be at any rate a select one.

Nature of the instruction given.

The nature of the instruction given in private schools, *i.e.*, the degree in which each subject is taught and the amount of time spent upon it, may be gathered from the Tables.

'Practical' character of the private schools.

While the lesser private schools (class B) are almost wholly commercial, the greater ones are so to a larger extent than is the case with endowed grammar schools. A smaller proportion of the pupils learn classics, and those who do devote less time to the study. This is the phenomenon which most struck me in visiting the private schools. They pursue with very little energy any but the directly practical branches of knowledge. Arithmetic, penmanship, possibly also French, are assiduously cultivated; Latin is languid; even mathematics is pushed on one side. Not in more than three or four private schools in the whole country did I find that the main object of the teaching was to invigorate the mind by these robust studies. It would be prejudging an important and

Want of thorough mental discipline.

difficult question to assume that they have a power of strengthening and quickening the intelligence superior to that of all other kinds of learning. But as things stand, they are the only subjects taught expressly with this view, and taught with sufficient exactness and in a manner sufficiently logical to attain this end. It is natural, therefore, that the schools which, neglecting these so-called unpractical studies, seek rather to satisfy the demands of a commercial community by teaching boys just what it is supposed will do for business and nothing more, should lack nerve and fibre, and should teach even the practical subjects in a loose, confused, and often irrational way. As will be remarked hereafter, the arithmetic of private schools, chiefly or wholly commercial, is not superior to that of the grammar schools. The same holds true of English composition. This defect—this want of solid mental discipline, is not to be charged equally on all private schools, for in some the ability of the head-master counteracts it; but it represents a tendency always present and generally dominant. Nothing is easier than to make out a strong case against the tyranny of Greek and Latin, and the private schoolmasters do so to their own satisfaction. I do not find, however, that have they any other subject to which they can point as (so to speak) the backbone of their teaching; anything which can give tenacity and clearness to the scholar's mind. French is made prominent in the more expensive schools (those belonging to class A), but one seldom finds the pupils in these establishments prepared to write a French letter with any approach to ease and correctness. Mathematics are not carried any further than, seldom indeed so far as, in the grammar schools. Much is made of geography, history, and miscellaneous information of divers kinds, but so far as I could discover not to any great purpose. The pupils had been taught a good many facts, but these were just the facts which a smartish boy picks up for himself when he leaves school. Meantime the discipline and guidance which school ought to give him had been neglected.

Quality of the teaching in private schools generally.

These considerations naturally lead me to speak of the general educational merits of the private schools, and the quality of the teaching given in them. It is almost impossible to express any general opinion without adding so many reservations and explanations as to deprive it of force. I can hardly doubt that the schools which I saw represented, not the average standard of private schools, but something above the average; for it was of course towards the better ones that my attention was chiefly directed; and it was the best masters whose consciousness of their own merits led them to invite or welcome a visit. The favourable impression, therefore, which I received from several of the more important schools, especially three or four in and near Manchester and Liverpool, did not enable me to feel assured of the goodness of schools of the same social class generally. With respect to the more numerous and poorer schools, classed under B, the case was different. Even in those which I saw, badness was the rule and goodness the exception—a badness which was frequently to be charged not so much on the personal incapacity of the teacher as on the embarrassing position in which he was placed and the demands he was called on to satisfy. One or two

cases seemed to show that it is not impossible for a private speculator who possesses both the gift of teaching and that peculiar sort of ability which ensures commercial success, and who is honest enough to resist the temptation to increase his profits by supplying a bad article, to give, under favourable conditions, a good, rough, plain education at very low fees, at 3*l.* or 4*l.* a year. But such a man is rare, and the chances are that in Lancashire he will take to some more lucrative occupation than school-keeping.

C.—Specific Account of Seven Private Schools, more or less typical.

Description of several private schools, each in some respect typical.

It may possibly give you a somewhat more definite idea than will, I fear, have been conveyed to you by the foregoing remarks, if I venture to add a description of several individual private schools in Lancashire which appeared to me, when visited, to be good types of their respective classes. Some of the most characteristic details must unfortunately be omitted, lest they should lead to an identification of the school by persons living near it, but enough may perhaps remain to give some notion of the various arrangements of these establishments, the impression their teachers make on a stranger, and the sort of education which they respectively supply. I give what I find jotted down in my note-book at the time. On the opposite page there appears in each case a table of fees, subjects taught, and so forth, drawn from the returns made by these schools themselves.

First school (L).

The figures given in the table show with sufficient exactness the character of the school. Socially and intellectually, it is supposed to stand in the front rank of the private schools of the county. Its buildings, without any pretensions to elegance, are fairly commodious, and there is a tolerably good playground. Boarders are taken, but they are only 10 per cent. of the whole number. They belong to the same social class as the day pupils, from whom there was nothing to distinguish them.

I examined the classes orally and by printed papers in arithmetic, mathematics, French, Latin, Greek, history, geography, spelling, reading and composition.

On the whole, the upper part of the school seemed to have been well and soundly taught, since it had been taught by the head-master; while the lower classes were at least up to the average standard of a grammar school. Most of the teaching, however, had been of a kind rather to inform than to stimulate the learner's mind. When required to translate an unseen piece of Latin, boys of 16 made but a faint attempt at it, and when questioned in mathematics they showed a greater familiarity with the words of Euclid than with the nature and meaning of the processes they were so quick in going through. Their Latin prose, however, was quite tolerable, and they turned English into French very fairly, doing this better in proportion to the difficulty of the exercise, than they turned previously unseen French into English. The arithmetic was creditable, showing both accuracy and intelligence. History appeared to be taught with much judgment in the senior classes,

SCHOOL L.

Total No. of Scholars.	Ages of Boys according to the Returns.	Subjects taught.	Number of boys learning each Subject.	No. of Assistant Masters.	Salaries of Assistant Masters.	Fees.	Occupation of Parents calculated per cent. on 10 highest and 10 lowest boys. Independent income, Mercantile - - } A. Farmers, Shopkeepers - B. Artisans, Labourers - C.
108	Average age 14 - - -	Greek - -	6	10	Mathematical Master, 170*l.*	DAY SCHOLARS.	DAY SCHOLARS.
	(Very few boys over 16.)	Latin - -	90		English and Commercial (also Superintendent at certain times of Boarders) 100*l.*	School fees 12*l.* 12*s.* to 18*l.* 18*s.* (according to place in school).	·60 A.
		French - -	57				·40 B.
		German - -	7		French, 60*l.*	Stationery, 10*s.*	BOARDERS.
		Arithmetic -	108		German and English, 30*l.*	BOARDERS.	·87 A.
		Mathematics -	57		Preparatory (also Superintendent of Boarders) 150*l.*	Under 14.	·13 B.
		Chemistry -	17			Board & instruction, 52*l.*10*s.*	
		History - -	108		Preparatory assistant, 80*l.*	Above 14.	
		Geography -	108		Drawing, 21*l.*	Board & instruction, 63*l.*	
		English Grammar -	108		Chemistry, 21*l.*	Extras: pew-rent, 1*l.* 5*s.*	
		English Composition.	36		Singing, 21*l.*		
		Reading - -	72		Drill, 14*l.*		
		Writing - -	91				
		Music - -	70				
		Drawing - -	108				

SCHOOL M.

Total No. of Scholars.	Age of Boys according to the returns.	Subjects taught.	Number of boys learning.	No. of Assistant Masters.	Salaries of Assistant Masters.	Fees.	Occupation of Parents calculated per cent. on 10 highest and 10 lowest boys. Independent income, Mercantile - - } A. Farmers, Shopkeepers, - B. Artisans, Labourers - C.
30	Under 10 years of age - 6 Above 10 and under 14 - 15 Above 14 and under 16 - 7	Religious Knowledge - - Greek - - - Latin - - - - French - - - German - - - Arithmetic - - Mathematics - - - Physics - - - Chemistry - - - English History - - Geography - - - English Grammar - - English Literature - - English Composition - - Reading - - - Writing - - - Music - - - Drawing - - - Roman History - - Mental Arithmetic - - Spelling - - -	30 None. 29 18 None. 30 14 9 None. 30 30 30 Taught with Eng. History. 30 30 30 12 10 9 30 30	1	From £30 to £50.	DAY SCHOLARS. School work, 12*l.* 12*s.* Chemistry, 6*l.* 6*s.* Piano, 6*l.* 6*s.* German, 6*l.* 6*s.* Drawing, 6*l.* 6*s.* BOARDERS. Under 15. Board and instruction, 52*l.* 10*s.* Laundress, 4*l.* 4*s.* Pew, 15*s.* Above 15. Board and instruction, 63*l.* Extras, 6*l.* 10*s.*	DAY BOYS. ·65 A. ·35 B. BOARDERS. ·89 A. ·11 B.

and the answering, especially to questions given respecting the period of the English civil war, was among the best which I obtained anywhere. The reading of the younger boys was good and bold. Writing was respectable throughout the school, and some of the drawings showed taste and neatness; the methods pursued were still somewhat old-fashioned. The boys were quiet and proper in their behaviour, and the tone of the school, as might have been expected from the estimable character of the head-master, seemed altogether good. There was, however, a certain want of sprightliness about the boys, an absence, so far as I could judge, both of *esprit de corps* and of any of that buoyant interest in their studies which ought in every class to appear among two or three, at least, of the most intelligent. Taken as a whole, the school was satisfactory, and this, considering its high scale of charges, it was clearly bound to be. A boy might be sent to it in the certainty that would be taught something, and taught it carefully; but he would he not be taught intelligently, nor his mind receive any stimulus, until he came into the higher classes. That is to say, the salaries given to the under-masters would not be sufficient to procure men either of well-cultivated minds or of genuine teaching power. If now and then such a person might happen to be got, one who could interest as well as instruct, it would be merely by chance; the most that could be expected would be a sensible, well-informed man, doing humdrum drill in a business-like way, a man, in fact, who was fitter to hear lessons than to teach.

Second school (M).

This school is both of smaller size and of lower social status than that last described. It was held in one pretty large room, at one end whereof the assistant taught the younger boys; at the other end the head-master the elder ones. Latin was taught, but did not go further than Cæsar, not, as I was told, up to Virgil. And, without insisting too much on minutiæ, it may fairly be thought that a master who corrects a boy for reading *Victĭma*, "*Victīma*, you little rascal," has probably not carried his own Virgilian studies very far. French was much dwelt on, and the boys translated an easy piece with slipshod fluency. French composition seemed to be beyond them.

English grammar consumed a good deal of time, but the parsing showed only a moderate understanding of the meaning of grammatical terms. They knew the rules and left the sense to take care of itself. The arithmetic was passable; history and geography pretty good. Mathematics seemed to be scarcely attempted. The assistant-master was a person of scanty attainments, as might be expected from his salary; and altogether the school was one where a boy would hardly be likely to receive even a thorough commercial education. Things seemed to be conducted in a petty and languid sort of way, there was no briskness, no "swing," so to speak, in any part of the work done, and the head-master, without being positively incompetent, did not seem to have any more vocation for teaching than for cab-driving, or any other honest occupation.

Third school (N).

This was a school of a very different character; socially, as the table shows, it stood below both L and M. But the master was a

person of much vigour and good sense, not without enthusiasm for his profession.* He had begun life as a pupil-teacher, and had afterwards passed through a training college. The school was divided into an upper and lower section, each with its own rooms and staff of masters. They had mostly been themselves teachers in Government schools, and although, with one exception, men of no particular capacity, the activity of their head had infected them, and spread a general air of diligence and smartness through the school. The upper school was used by the children of shopkeepers and well-to-do clerks; some little Latin was taught, a good deal of French, and the elements of chemistry. Arriving suddenly I found the highest class receiving a lesson in the history of Napoleon's wars from the head-master, in a horribly close schoolroom. He dictated to them on one day, and examined them on the facts thus communicated some days afterwards. They answered questions about the French and English Revolutions creditably.

Mathematics, said the master, was not less an object of aversion to the parents than was Latin; he managed, however, to teach it to a certain number by putting it at an extra hour and yet charging no extra fee. Examining the boys in Euclid, I found, as usual, considerable facility in doing the propositions with a less perfect intelligence of the principles involved. The commercial subjects appeared to be taught in a thorough way, though the spelling was not all that could be wished. The writing was clear and plain, but inelegant. Arithmetic was taught, not, as usually, out of a manual, but from a book containing nothing but examples, the rules being explained orally, and, so far as I could judge, well explained.

The lower school was filled by the children of the minor tradespeople, travellers, and mechanics, most of whom had come hither from some National or British school. The fees were at least double those of such Government schools; nevertheless the children came, their parents apparently really valuing the better education which they received here. Besides reading, writing, and arithmetic, geography and history were taught in this division, as well as English grammar, the latter from verbal explanations and with real intelligence, as an oral examination proved. A few learnt Euclid and drawing, none Latin or French. The master of this department had a salary of 200*l.*; most of the subordinate work was done by pupil-teachers, receiving 20*l.* per annum or thereabouts. The headmaster complained with some bitterness of the competition of the Government schools, which by their low scale of charges drew away, as he said, a great part of the poorer middle class, and kept his fees at a point lower than he thought fair or desirable. In spite of this he proposed to raise the scale throughout the school, and to give French—not as an extra—to every boy in the upper division. He explained to me at considerable length his method of superintending the whole work of the school, examining every class weekly, and

* Since the above was written this teacher has left Manchester; what has become of the school I do not know.

SCHOOL N.

Total No. of Scholars.	Ages of Boys according to the returns.	Subjects taught.	No. learning.	No. of Assistant Masters.	Salaries of Assistant Masters.	Fees.	Occupation of Parents, calculated per cent. on 10 highest and 10 lowest boys. Independent, income, Mercantile - - A. Farmers, Shopkeepers - B. Artisans, Labourers - C.
354	Under 10 years - - - 136	Religious Knowledge -	354		Second Master, 200*l.*	1st Section.	DAY SCHOLARS.
	Above 10 and under 14 - 186	Latin - - -	18		Assistant Master (Higher School), 60*l.*	School work, 3*l.* 7*s.*	·25 A.
	Above 14 and under 16 - 32	French - - -	32		Do. „ „ „ 50*l.*	2nd Section.	·75 B.
		Arithmetic - -	354		Do. „ „ „ 40*l.*	School work, 2*l.* 19*s.*	(C.?)
		Book-keeping - -	12		Do. (Lower School), 45*l.*	3rd Section.	
		Mensuration - -	34		Do. „ „ „ 30*l.*	School work, 2*l.* 10*s.*	
		Mathematics - -	44		Pupil Teacher, 5*s.* per week.	French, 1*l.*	
		Physics - -	40		Latin Master } 5*s.* per quarter from every pupil.	Drawing, 1*l.*	
		Natural History -	64		French „ }	Latin, 1*l.*	
		Chemistry - -	40		Drawing „ }		
		History - -	154				
		Geography - -	260				
		English Grammar -	270				
		English Literature -	40			(No boarders.)	
		English Composition -	84				
		Reading - -	354				
		Writing - -	354				
		Drawing -	40				

making suggestions to the teachers respecting the condition of each boy. He professed his disbelief in the University local examinations as a test of a school, saying that it would have been easy enough for him to prepare a few boys to send in once a year, but that this would be no security to the parents for the rest. He expressed a desire to have the school inspected, even though he should have to pay for it himself, declaring that this would strengthen his position, as against those natural enemies the parents, who would believe an inspector proclaiming the value of mathematics, French, and Latin, though they would not believe him. The schoolrooms were good, with the exception already noted, though all were somewhat overcrowded. There was no proper playground.

The circumstances of this school appeared instructive in two ways. Its rapid success (it had been established only some three years) showed the need that exists for some places where an education rather better (*i.e.*, both sounder and more extensive) than that of Government schools may be had at a moderate cost. Its good order, the general air of briskness and purpose that pervaded it, and what appeared its suitability to the circumstances of the neighbourhood (it stood in a suburb where the rents of the houses ranged from 15*l.* to 40*l.* per annum) brought out the one characteristic advantage of the private adventure system—the ease with which an enterprising man can adapt his school to the requirements of the class whom he addresses, and organize it in the way which he knows best how to work. There was, it is true, a great deal to be improved in this school; many of the methods of teaching were imperfect, and some of the teachers themselves persons of questionable competence; but the education given was distinctly better than that of nine out of ten of the small private schools, and the head-master had shown his judgment by paying to one or two of his assistants salaries which bore a large proportion to his own entire profit from the concern.

Fourth school (O).

In point of social position, this school* stood between (L) and (M), and, at the time of my visit, distinctly above the level of (N). It was, and had always been comparatively small, the pupils not exceeding forty, and appeared to be conducted with a special view to the University local examinations. Fully understanding that the examination art is an art by itself, needing special cultivation, the head-master held written examinations weekly, taking each week some three subjects, and every fourth week all the subjects which were being prepared. Classes were formed several months beforehand of boys going in for the Oxford or Cambridge examinations, as the case might be, and all subjects which it was not intended to offer there were dropped. Thus, at the time of my visit no Latin was being learnt, "for boys," said the master, "cannot do Latin at the same time with mathematics and the "English subjects. When the next Oxford or Cambridge local "examination is past, these boys, or some of them, will be set to "work at Latin, and perhaps French, so as to pass in those sub-

* This school has not made returns, so I cannot, as in the other cases, supply tables of numbers, fees, and subjects.

"jects the time after." Feeling a little curious to see what were the results of so peculiar a system, I examined one class minutely on some of the subjects in which they had last been trained. The training proved to be no sham; the boys knew a great deal about many things; in English history, for instance, it was difficult to puzzle them; but they had been not taught, but crammed. They answered hurriedly, not stopping to think what the question meant, but pouring out stores of information which they did not understand. Every reply witnessed to large knowledge, but then it was not a reply to the question put. Their minds, to use a familiar illustration, were like a full sack of corn, which if you press it down at one point, rises and runs over at some other. It was noticeable that they usually answered in the words of their text-book; and that while knowing English history minutely, they were wholly ignorant of the course of events in other European countries. In English grammar and analysis, as it is called, they did not, as I had at first expected, answer by rote, but seemed to have mastered the principles sufficiently to take any ordinary sentence to pieces, and describe correctly the relation of its parts. Something in their manner showed that this was a forced capacity, the result not perhaps of cramming but of overteaching, and that it did not witness to any natural and healthy mental growth. But such as it was, the capacity was there. These boys looked jaded and overworked, and the whole aspect of the school was one of discomfort. The assistant masters were numerous in proportion to the number of the pupils, and seemed to be employed manipulating them in small classes, with a view to individual preparation. They were very inferior people; no others would have taken such salaries. Of the head-master himself it is better to say nothing, since I have nothing good to say.

The circumstances of this school appeared to me to show that the Local Examinations do not provide a sufficient guarantee to parents of the goodness of the education given to their sons. This schoolmaster had almost from the first embraced the University examination system, seeing how well it could be made to serve his ends; and his boys, by dint of 'special preparation,' (a phrase perhaps less offensive than 'cramming') had acquitted themselves creditably. In proportion to its numbers, not many schools in England have done better. Nevertheless, the education was such that one could almost wish a boy rather to go without any, than to have his mind and health ruined by premature forcing, and by the constant effort to turn every scrap of knowledge to account in a question paper. The finest intelligence could not have come unscathed out of such an ordeal.

Further, in this case it was easy to see how great to a private schoolmaster of any but the highest integrity, is the temptation to become more or less a charlatan. He has neither the traditions of his office to guide him, like a grammar school master, nor the interference of trustees to fear; he has only to commend himself to the parents, whose weak points it is so easy to discover, and may even persuade himself as well as them that he has done enough if he has produced, by whatever means, what is called an educational result.

Fifth school (P).

P. is a school very dissimilar to any of the above. It is situated in one of the newest of the manufacturing towns, and is, in the absence of a grammar school, almost the only place of education above the rank of a Government school. I copy here respecting it what I find in my note-book, taken down on the spot:—

The school is held in a large, though somewhat overcrowded room. There are about 87 children present, 21 of whom are girls, scattered about among the boys according to their position in the classes, without any attempt to keep the sexes separate either at work or in play hours. There are one or two children of hand labourers present, and several of rich manufacturers; the rest lie between these extremes, the girls coming mostly from a higher social stratum than the boys. In the upper department (fee 4*l.* 4*s.* per annum) a few boys are at Latin, and eight just beginning Euclid. All the rest and all the lower department learn the commercial subjects only. At my request the master asks questions in English grammar and in the principles of arithmetic. The children are somewhat flustered (as is often the case), and do not seem to have gone very far in either subject (few are over 13 years of age) still the answering is generally good, shows intelligence, and bears witness to a sensible method of teaching. Continuing the examination, their spelling turns out to be respectable, the arithmetical notation (so bad in most schools) distinctly good, the geography and English grammar both fair. The children looked rough enough, but behaved well, boys as well as girls.

The head-master was educated at a grammar school in a midland county. "The people down here," he tells me, "are "much sharper than there; but they are no judges of education, "except perhaps of writing and accounts. I think that education "is altogether in a worse state here; I am sure fewer learn classics. "If I dared, I would teach more Latin in my school; it makes "the boys do the rest of their work better; but the parents won't "let me. To please them I have to send the boys home with those "absurd books of sums and bits of ornamental penmanship. Partly "for this reason I wish greatly there was some Government inspec-"tion to be had; it would give me a better position towards the "parents. I can't quite make up my mind to raise my fees by two "guineas yearly; yet probably I may, for most of the people who "come to me are well off. In the lower school there are mechanics' "sons who pay 2*l.* 2*s.* 0*d.* a year readily, though they might go to "the Government schools, where they would pay only 10*s.* or 12*s.* "Thus I might get what I most want—better under-masters. I "can't pay properly now for assistance. I should teach Latin "then in the regular school course, thinking that there is no giving "a thorough education without classics or mathematics. The "grammar schools don't go down with Lancashire people, because "they spend too much time on classics. If they were to spend "one-third of the whole time, instead of a half or more, they would "succeed better.* I never knew any harm come of letting the

* In thinking that the Lancashire grammar schools spend so much time on Latin he erred as most Lancashire people err. What he said would have been true enough of many grammar schools in Shropshire and Worcestershire.

SCHOOL P.

Total No. of Scholars.	Ages of Boys according to the returns.	Subjects taught.	No. learning.	No. of Assistant Teachers.	Salaries of Assistant Teachers.	Fees.	Occupation of Parents, calculated per cent. on 10 highest and 10 lowest boys. Independent income, Mercantile - A. Farmers, Shopkeepers - B. Artisans, Labourers - C.
140	Under 10 years - - - 95 Above 10 and under 14 - 40 Above 14 and under 16 - 5	Religious Knowledge - - Latin - - - - - French - - - - - Arithmetic - - - - Book-keeping - - - - Mensuration - - - - History - - - - Geography - - - - English Grammar - - - English Composition - - - Reading - - - - Writing - - - - Music - - - - Drawing - - - - Mental Arithmetic - - - Needlework - - - -	1 2 1 130 45 20 45 45 45 45 140 140 140 45 140 30	4	Assistant Master, 60*l.* Governess, 22*l.* Junior Teacher, 15*l.* Do. do. 11*l.*	DAY BOYS. Upper School. School work, 4*l.* 4*s.* Lower School. School work, 2*l.* 2*s.* *Extras:* Latin, 2*l.* 2*s.* Greek, 2*l.* 2*s.* French, 2*l.* 2*s.* Drawing, 1*l.* 1*s.* Private tuition, 4*l.* 4*s.* Fires, 2*s.* Dancing, 1*l.* 10*s.* BOARDERS. Upper School. Board and tuition, 29*l.* 8*s.* Laundress, 2*l.* 2*s.* Pew, 8*s.* Medicine, 4*s.* Lower School. Board and tuition, 23*l.* 2*s.* Laundress, 2*l.* 2*s.* Pew, 8*s.* Medicine, 4*s.* Books, 10*s.* Stationery, 10*s.*	DAY BOYS. ·30 A. ·55 B. ·15 C. BOARDERS. ·66 A. ·34 B.

" boys and girls be together. It seems to me they are both the " better for it. Sometimes parents complain a little that the school " is not select enough, but they generally end by sending their " children. The town is still new, so people don't mind so much as " they would in Preston or Bury." In this last statement he was no doubt quite right; such a school is only to be found in an unformed society before the distinction of ranks has begun to grow sharp. With many defects (of which it is fair to say that the master expressed himself conscious) this was in the main a good school. It taught, not indeed as much as might be wished, but it taught well, and there was a sort of heartiness and genuineness about the whole place which could not but leave an agreeable impression. What it wanted was a somewhat higher scale of fees, so as to procure better teaching for the junior classes, and a more assured position, which might have enabled the head-master to make the changes whose desirability he saw. He would evidently have been glad to exchange his present freedom for a mastership in a foundation school of the same class, even putting the pecuniary advantages of an endowment out of sight, for he believed that in such a position far more could be effected for the good of the town.

Sixth school (Q).

Q. This, as the tables show, is a very cheap school, although twice as dear as the Government schools of the manufacturing town in which it is placed. In a room some 30 feet by 15 (it was so full

SCHOOL Q.

Total No. of Scholars.	Ages of Boys according to the returns.	Subjects taught.	No. learning.	No. of Assistant Masters.
46	Under 10 years - - - 15 Above 10 and under 14 - 21 Above 14 and under 16 - 10	Arithmetic - - - Book-keeping - - - Mensuration - - - History - - - Geography - - - English Grammar - - Reading - - - Writing - - -	37 6 7 21 21 19 45 37	Master's son.

Continued.

Salaries of Assistant Masters.	Fees.	Occupation of Parents, calculated per cent. on 10 highest and 10 lowest boys. Independent income, Mercantile - - } A. Farmers, Shopkeepers - B. Artisans, Labourers - C.
None.	Under 8 years. School work, 1*l.* 4*s.* Over 8 years. School work, 2*l.*	Day Boys. ·10 A. (?) ·75 B ·15 C.

of benches that one could not well measure it) I found packed 53 children (among them a few girls). In the midst sat the master

hearing a class, apparently heedless of the din which almost deafened me on entering. Some were talking, others scuffling about; hardly any seemed to be at work. Every window was closed; the two ventilators were too small to be of any use, and the air was in consequence insupportably foul. Having with some difficulty made the master, a simple, harmless man, understand what I wanted, I examined the highest class, consisting of three boys (aged 11, 12, and 13) in fractions, which they were supposed to know, and gave them one or two very easy sums in practice. They could neither answer anything nor do anything. In geography it was the same. The Mediterranean Sea, they said, was the largest river in Europe, and next to it the Thames. English grammar and reading were perhaps a little better, and out of 11 children several did a piece of easy dictation tolerably well. Being told that they were taught history, I tried the highest class, and could obtain no answer to the simplest questions. What the lower classes knew I did not go on to inquire. The children, said the teacher, were those of shopkeepers and mechanics, with one or two of operatives in the cotton and woollen mills. They belonged to all religious denominations; were mostly, however, Nonconformists. Among them were to be found some Roman Catholics, who read the Bible along with the rest. No dogmatic instruction was given, since the Sunday schools of the town sufficiently provided for this. The master did not seem to have any assistance. He had himself received his education, evidently a scanty one, at a private school in the town.

This school may be thought an extreme case. It is not by any means a singular one. There are many such, not only in the smaller towns, but even in the suburbs of Manchester and Liverpool, giving a teaching incomparably worse than of an average National or British school, yet charging twice as much for it.

R. This school did not furnish any returns, and I am therefore unable to state either the total of the pupils or the number learning each subject. It may, perhaps, seem rather to fall within the scope of the Commission of 1858 than of the present inquiry; nevertheless, as such schools continue to exist and make themselves felt, it may be well to lose no opportunity of recalling the fact of their existence. This particular school is, or was, kept in a long low upper room, entered from a dirty court which branches off one of the back streets of a country town. There were 74 boys on the books, some 65 of whom seemed to have paid up and be in regular attendance. Of these 25 were farmers' sons from the country; 25 more the children of labourers; the rest were townspeople, small shopkeepers, publicans, and mechanics. Seventh school (R).

The fees were, for reading alone, 6*s.* a quarter; for reading, with English grammar and writing, 8*s.*; for these subjects along with arithmetic, 9*s.* or 10*s.* Mensuration and ornamental penmanship were about to be added to the school curriculum, and for these a fee of 15*s.* was to be exacted. It would have been a waste of time to examine the boys, for the school had been in existence only some two or three months, and they were probably most of

them deserters from the National schools of the town or neighbourhood. It was also needless, for the schoolmaster—a Lancashire man born, although he was the image of that Irish hedge schoolmaster whom we know from Mr. Nicol's inimitable sketches—was evidently an uneducated man. He had been engaged for 17 years, according to his own report, in teaching schools in one place and another, but had not learnt during that period anything more than reading, writing, and the elements of arithmetic. When a class came up to say a lesson it stood round him and repeated off the words of the book in shrill rapid screech, while he kept his eyes on the page to see that they did not miss a word. This seemed to be the whole teaching. Those who were not up at the desk occupied themselves in carrying on "scrimmages" in other parts of the room, so that no slight noise and confusion prevailed.

In this town there was a good grammar school and what was reported to be a respectable National school. Perhaps one-fourth of the boys in this private school could have afforded the grammar school fees; a few more might have been sent there as foundationers, supposing their abilities deserved the promotion. Why the rest, who had much better have been in the Government schools of the neighbourhood (where, by the way, they would have been taken at less than half the fees they were paying) preferred a private school of this stamp, it was not very easy to ascertain. The master himself told me that parents disliked the pupil-teachers of the National school, and thought their boys were better attended to where the numbers were not so great. "Besides," he added, "they think the public school is not good (=select) enough, almost like a charity school." They do, no doubt, dislike many of the arrangements and disciplinary rules of the Government schools, and religion is often a ground of distrust; many of these boys, for instance, were Roman Catholics. The misfortune is that whenever any foolish whim leads the parent to take his son from the grammar or National school he should find such wretched resorts as this one open to him. In his small way this man was doing as much harm as the quack doctors whom legislation has been at so much pains to restrain.

It would be easy to extend almost indefinitely such notices of individual schools, but it is fortunately not necessary to draw upon your time and patience by doing so. The moral of almost all the private schools is substantially the same. Cases of honest incompetence and successful charlatanism alternate with cases of good and solid work done under such disadvantages that it is only half done after all. The ignorance and impudence of the bad schoolmasters, the complaints and requests of the good ones, equally seem to point to the need for some device, arrangement, or system which shall help the teacher to reach a higher level of emoluments and social rank, and which, if it does not give the parents sounder ideas respecting the methods and ends of education, if it does not even enable them to select the best teachers, shall at least save them from falling into the hands of the worst.

D. Boarding Schools.

There is one class of private schools of which no account has yet been given—the boarding-schools. Many of them, including of course all those attached to endowed grammar schools, are also day schools, and in so far require no further description; and even regarding the peculiarities of their state as boarding-schools, all that has to be said may be said briefly, seeing that they are but scantily represented in Lancashire in proportion to its population. Yorkshire* on the one hand, the environs of London and Brighton on the other, are apparently the districts in which there is much more to be learned of the merits and defects of such establishments.

Such as they are, the Lancashire boarding-schools may be grouped under two types—the genteel school and the cheap school. There is of course an unbroken gradation of fees, from the least to the most costly, so it is very hard to say to which class those in the middle ought to be reckoned as belonging. There are other things, however, besides the charges to be taken into account, and these usually fix the school as conforming to, or at least approaching one or other type. The theory of the "genteel" school is that it is a place where gentlemen's sons are boarded and taught. The theory, sometimes unavowed, of the cheap school is that it is a place where boys who are not wanted at home are taken to board. So far from affecting selectness, these schools are fond of proclaiming and insisting on what they call their "middle-class" character.†

The "genteel" boarding schools.

It is to the former class that the boarding establishments attached to the grammar schools belong. (There are some few country endowed schools where boarders are taken at lower fees, but these hardly require special mention.) The appended table will show how their charges run:—

Table showing the Charges made in Boarding Schools for Boys.

Endowed Schools.

a.

Board	£55	0	0
Capitation fees	8	8	0
Drawing	4	4	0
Drawing materials	0	3	0
Breakages	0	2	6
Total	£67	17	6

The bill of a boy above 12 in the boarding department of a classical grammar school in one of the manufacturing towns. For boys under 12 the boarding charge is 50*l.*

b.

Board and tuition	£52	10	0
Washing and repairs	4	4	0
Drilling and dancing	2	0	0
French master	4	4	0
Books and stationery	1	19	3
Surgeon	0	17	6
Miscellaneous expenses	1	1	0
Total	£66	15	9

The bill of a boy over 12 boarding at a classical grammar school in a country town. Board and tuition charge for boys under 12, 42*l.* Average boarder's bill, 52*l.* 12*s.* 11*d.*

* I do not know why there should be more private boarding schools in Yorkshire than in Lancashire, nor can I give any evidence for the fact except the general belief of Lancashire people. Cases very often met me in which boys had been sent from home to Yorkshire schools.

† I remember to have seen in some Lancashire paper the advertisement of a schoolmaster who proclaimed himself to have "thirty years' experience in the training of middle-class boys," as if the middle-class boy was a creature of different powers and passions from the upper and the lower.

c.

Board and tuition	£42	0	0	Highest bill of a grammar school in the country; its lowest bill is 36*l.* 14*s.*
French	4	0	0	
Drawing	4	0	0	
Washing and mending	3	3	0	
Stationery and books	3	1	0	
Playground fee	0	5	0	
Sundries	2	1	0	
Total	£58	10	0	

d.

Board and education	£37	16	0	The average bill of a mainly commercial grammar school in a country town. The bill given is that of a boy under 10; above 10 it would be 43*l.* 7*s.*
Books	0	7	0	
Seat in church	0	10	0	
Sundries	0	10	0	
Total	£39	3	0	

e. A country endowed school, elementary, states its terms for boarders of all ages at 20*l.* inclusive.

f. Another, where the boys mostly board in farmers' houses near the school, states the charges to be from 14*l.* to 20*l.* (inclusive). Education in this school is gratuitous.

Table showing the Charges made in Boarding Schools for Boys.

Private Schools.

a.

Board and education	£63	0	0	A boarding school in the outskirts of Manchester. Average bill, 75*l.* 7*s.* Lowest bill, 60*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.*
Stationery	1	13	0	
German	6	6	0	
Drawing and materials	7	7	0	
Chemistry	6	6	0	
Drill	1	1	0	
Washing	4	4	0	
Pew rent	0	15	0	
Books	1	0	0	
Total	£91	12	0	

b.

Board and instruction	£63	0	0	A boarding school on the sea-coast. Average bill returned as 78*l.* 3*s.*; lowest bill as 68*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.*
French	6	6	0	
Drilling	4	4	0	
Music	6	6	0	
German	6	6	0	
Drawing	6	6	0	
Books	3	5	0	
Boating and bathing	1	4	0	
Medical advice	1	1	0	
Seat in chapel	1	1	0	
Travelling expenses	1	15	0	
Sundries	3	6	0	
Total	£104	0	0	

c.

Board and instruction	£42	0	0	A boarding school on the sea-coast. This is the bill of a pupil over 12 years of age; under 12 the board and instruction charge is 36*l.* 15*s.*
French	6	6	0	
Drawing	6	6	0	
Half-year's dancing	3	0	0	
Drill and gymnastics	2	0	0	
German	6	6	0	
Washing	2	0	0	
Seat in church	1	1	0	
Books and sundries (not given)				
Total	£68	19	0	

d.

Board	£36	15	0
Instruction	10	10	0
Music	8	8	0
French	2	2	0
Books and stationery	0	14	6
Chemicals	0	4	0
Laundress	2	2	0
Seat in church	1	1	0
Total	£61	16	6

A day and boarding school (chiefly commercial) in Liverpool. Average bill, 54*l.* 3*s.* 6*d.*; lowest bill, 49*l.* 9*s.*

e.

Board and tuition	£29	8	0
French	4	4	0
German	4	4	0
Drawing	2	2	0
Singing	0	8	0
New music	0	5	0
Seat in church	0	10	0
Washing and repairing	2	6	0
Travelling expenses and other sundries	6	8	10
Total	£49	15	10

A boarding school (commercial) in the outskirts of a manufacturing town. Average bill returned at 33*l.* 13*s.* 10*d.*; lowest bill at 25*l.* 14*s.* 5*d.*

f.

Board and education	£27	0	0
Books and materials	1	4	8
Washing	2	0	0
Pew rent	0	6	0
Sundries	0	5	4
Total	£30	16	0

A commercial boarding school in the manufacturing district, used by sons of small manufacturers and shopkeepers. Average bill, 27*l.* 2*s.* 8*d.*; lowest bill, 24*l.* 11*s.* 10*d.*

g.

Board	£18	18	0
Instruction	10	10	0
Pianoforte	4	4	0
New music	0	6	6
Sundries	1	14	11
Total	£35	13	5

A commercial boarding school in a country place. Average bill, 29*l.* 13*s.* 3*d.*; lowest, 26*l.* 6*s.*

Between the style of living and accommodation provided for boarders in the grammar schools and in the more expensive private schools, mostly in or near Manchester and Liverpool, I do not know that there is any distinction, unless it be that the former are often somewhat rougher. Inspecting the schoolrooms and dormitories, I found both, though clean and well ordered, often falling short of modern requirements as regards space and ventilation. This remark, again, is more often true of the endowed grammar than of private schools, since the latter are for the most part held in modern houses, sometimes built expressly for the purpose. A grammar school master, on the other hand, is frequently obliged to live in the old school buildings, into whose low-roofed and small-windowed rooms his predecessors seem to have crammed double the number of sleepers which he now admits to be at least sufficient to fill them. How our ancestors were able to survive the overcrowding to which they were subjected in school, in the hours of work and still more in the hours of sleep, is a problem which the sight of these

Buildings and accommodation.

Food.

old schools often raises. It was of course out of my power to ascertain anything about the food supplied in these schools, but the position and personal character of the masters was in most cases a sufficient guarantee that the boys are fairly dealt with. I certainly never was met by any complaint upon this score that seemed likely to bear investigation. So far from finding it easy to make a large profit off the boys' food, details supplied by one or two of these gentlemen led me to believe that the gains on boarding when a school is full scarcely compensate for the risk of losses upon any diminution of numbers. At the time of my visit the rise in the price of meat caused by the cattle plague seemed likely to swallow up most of the profit that they had been accustomed to draw from the boarding department alone (apart from the instruction). Some of them were talking of raising their charges in consequence. I speak of course of schools where provisions were supplied without stint, and of Lancashire schools only.

As regards their organization and the instruction given in them, there is little to distinguish these schools from the day schools of the class to which they, whether endowed or private, respectively belong. Nearly all of them receive day scholars, who generally form the majority of the pupils, and are, so far as I could learn, both improved by, and likely to improve, the boarders. Schoolmasters like better to have boarders alone, when they can get enough to fill their house and rooms, because they have a more complete control over them; and parents seem to be influenced by some similar notion, thinking that the admission of day boys makes a school rougher and less select. But all that I heard went to prove that a school, especially a school of from 20 to 40 boys, where the boarders are entirely isolated from the world, seeing only each other in work hours and play hours, is almost certain to be an unwholesome sort of place, and that to introduce day boys is like letting a stream into a pond of standing water. Their presence gives to the school and its doings a modified publicity, which is a security against all sorts of evils.

The cheap boarding schools.

The cheap boarding schools, although they form so peculiar a class as to require a separate description, are not numerous in Lancashire, so far as one can gather from the report of the inhabitants and the advertisements in the newspapers. They receive in almost every instance boarders only, and are generally placed in the country or in some small town, though a few may be found near Manchester and Liverpool. This is partly to save house rent; partly also for the sake of seclusion, or, as an unfriendly observer might say, of secrecy. Hence, most of their masters are resident in the house, except perhaps a teacher of modern languages or some such extra subject, brought once a week from the nearest town. But the masters and the teaching apparatus altogether is the least important part of the school; it is not primarily a place of teaching, but a place of lodging and feeding. Boys are sent there to get them out of the way at home; boys, it may be, who have lost their mothers, or whose father is gone to America, or who are found unmanageable at home, or who have been lazy and

neglected for several years, so that some desperate measure is needed to prepare them for an office in nine months time. Or perhaps some self-made man, conscious that his boy will not learn manners at home, and having heard of the virtues of boarding schools, is caught, as he runs his eye down the advertising columns of the Manchester Guardian or the Examiner, by the advertisement of Mr. So-and-so's establishment, where the comforts of a well-regulated home are combined with a sound commercial education on moral and Christian principles, for the low charge of 25 guineas per annum, washing included. In this he thinks he has cheapness and elegance both together, forgetting the commercial shrewdness which would not let him buy any other article below its value without a careful scrutiny of its quality.

That it is quite impossible for a private schoolmaster to give good food, good accommodation, and a thorough plain education at such a charge it needs no minute calculation to prove. Great establishments, with 200 or 300 boys, paying no rent, having among their teachers men who come as much from other motives as for the sake of a salary, are said to effect it. The cheap private school must give something bad, in order to leave a profit; either the lodging, or the food, or the instruction, sometimes all three.

Quantity of food supplied.

As respects food, there does not seem reason to believe that boys are positively ill-treated; at least, one hears of no well-authenticated cases of starvation. One master admitted to me that the staple nutriment of his boys was bread, which, he said, he was careful to procure unadulterated. He took me down to the kitchen, and showed me some of his loaves to be admired, pressing them with his thumb to show their elasticity, which, it seems, is a good sign. They certainly looked very solid, and, to use a familiar expression, filling at the price. Asking him how he managed to take boys so cheap at the present price of butchers' meat (his charges were for boys under 12, 20*l.* to 24*l.*; over 12, 26*l.* to 30*l.*), he explained that he always carved the joints himself, proportioning the quantity put on the plate to the size of the boy, and that no boy was permitted to have a second help. If he had been well plied with the incompressible bread, he would hardly have asked for one. Whether such a practice is general I could not discover.*

Accommodation: the dormitories.

In the matter of lodging there is far more ground for complaint. If even the more expensive schools are not wholly free from blame, much less these. Occasionally, in looking through the rooms, I marked down their dimensions with as much accuracy as was attainable under the circumstances. Once in a bedroom 24 feet by 20, and as nearly as I could judge, 9 or 9½ feet high, there were 13 boys, that is, about 350 cubic feet per boy.† In another room in the same house the allowance was about 280 cubic feet per boy. A third room had a roof somewhat higher

* This schoolmaster announced in his prospectus that he gave his pupils "an "unlimited supply of the best provisions."

† As has been stated already (p. 493), the minimum allowed by Dr. Carpenter is 800 cubic feet for each person, supposing the ventilation to be good. Here, therefore, we have less than half that quantity, and the ventilation bad.

but the floor was covered with beds so thick that one could scarcely get in among them, and the boys must have had to dress and undress standing on their beds. Miserable, dirty-looking beds they were, with half-ragged discoloured counterpanes, yet it was only the elder boys who had each one to himself; the younger were packed two together. It need hardly be added that the provision for washing was of the roughest character. The "lavatory" was a small dark room, or rather passage, in which were placed a number of pewter basins. This school is an extreme but not a solitary case; other instances occur to me in which the overcrowding was quite as reckless.

Staff of teachers.

It is in the teaching and officering of these schools that the head-master's economy is chiefly seen. He is himself as often as not quite incompetent to teach, and, curiously enough, it is the illiterate men who are sometimes, by dint of their business qualities, the most successful. The stuff of which his assistants are made, on whom, while he is occupied with the domestic management, the work of instruction mainly devolves, may be judged from the salaries they receive. I will take three instances:—

A. says, "I have two assistants; to one I give 30*l.* with board, to "the other board and instruction only. I don't find it easy to "get them good; sometimes they are competent as far as know-"ledge goes, but then they have bad habits; they drink, or "something of that kind."* Strange indeed, that it should be hard to get a good teacher for 30*l.* and board.

Salaries given to assistants.

B. "I have two resident masters, one classical, and one for "modern languages, each receives 35*l.* per annum."

C. "I have two assistants (apparently resident), the salary of "the one begins at 25*l.* and may rise to 40*l.*; the other begins at "30*l.* to rise to 40*l.* If I had a graduate I might give him as "much as 50*l.*"

What was the nature of the "thorough professional and commercial education," given by gentlemen paying and receiving these salaries, may be understood without any lengthened description. One school may serve as a sample (I copy notes taken on the spot):

Case of a successful private boarding school.

"Heard the senior division examined in parsing (Lennie's "Grammar) by the master; he keeps his eye on the book and asks "his questions from it: they reply in its words. He next questions them in English history: 'Did anything worthy of remark "occur in the reign of Ethelbert?' Then I examined them in his-"tory and geography, regarding neither of which had they any "rational idea. Asked the Warden (*i.e.* head-master) to examine in "Latin (the class was supposed to be reading Cæsar, but was really "in Henry's First Latin Book). After much persuasion he takes up "a Latin Grammar, and asks, 'How many declensions are there?' "What is the sign of the first declension?' and so forth, keeping "his eyes steadfastly on the book.† Trying them in Latin after-"wards (Henry's First Latin Book, they refused Cæsar), I find

* Once a head-master told me, in the presence of his class, that he had just dismissed his classical master for intoxication; and immediately afterwards brought him in to examine the class.

† He knew no Latin, though he would not confess it.

" them knowing something about the accidence, but the rest of " their answering mere guesswork. Gave them arithmetic on paper. " The clumsiness of their work, as well as its inaccuracy, witnessed " to bad and stupid teaching. Questions requiring the slightest " exercise of thought were not so much as attempted. Also dic- " tation: this is done pretty fairly. Looked through their copy- " books and drawing albums; some few are mechanical drawings, " the rest pencil copies from the flat, quite worthless. Shown " ciphering-books, wherein questions are copied out, to be displayed " to parents. The boys write examples out, working them on their " slate; they have them looked over and corrected, then they are " copied out neatly in these books to be sent home. Looked through " the working and sleeping-rooms, the latter shockingly close; in " one small attic room fourteen beds; even in the middle of the " day the air is bad. Inquiring from what class in society the " boys came, the Warden answers, 'We have a many gentlemen's " sons, some tradesmen's sons too.' He thinks it well to work " all subjects with catechisms; 'it improves the memory and " brings out the principal parts.' Does not press the boys with " the words of the book, however; asks them to say what the book " tells them; 'this learns them to collect matter.' In Greek does " not consider it makes any difference which tragedian boys read, " 'they are all very much alike.' So 'all Virgil's works are very " much alike.' 'In history the most important things are the mar- " riages of sovereigns, and dates of battles, and of the beginnings " and endings of reigns. Never says anything about the state of " society, or the principles of the British Constitution, or all that " sort of thing. Would teach mediæval history; considers it very " valuable. The history of the Italian Republics about the year 1700 " is particularly interesting. Mangnall's Questions is a good book, " especially for ladies' schools; 'it does not go quite deep enough " ' into subjects for us.' " This was a very prosperous school.

Moral tone of the cheap boarding schools.

It would have been very desirable to ascertain what was the moral tone of these schools, and how discipline was maintained there. There were, however, no means of doing so. The boys did not seem to be beaten or otherwise ill-treated—from the vice of cruelty at least one may believe the cheap private schools to be free—but discipline would be easy enough over such feeble, dejected-looking boys as most of them are. Whether it is the want of good air that makes them pale, or the want of a fresh vigorous life in this isolation, where they are kept always pretending to learn, yet feeling, if they have any sense, that the whole thing is a sham; or whether they are naturally poor specimens of boyhood, sent away from home on that very account, certain it is that there is something almost painful about the aspect of boys in these places—no colour in their cheeks, no animation in their answers, no glee in their sports.* I would,

* As a specimen of the æsthetic influences which are brought to bear on the pupils of some of these schools, I may mention that in the dining hall (which was also the sitting room) of one of them I saw over the chimney-piece three pictures. On the one side was a highly-coloured representation of the heart and lungs, on the other a corresponding one of the stomach and intestines, and in the middle, a picture of the Crucifixion.

more than once, have given a great deal for ten minutes in private with them or with some discontented usher who might have revealed the secrets of the prison-house. But with a vigilant head-master showing the visitor about, this was not to be thought of.

These remarks are not to be taken as applying to all the cheap private boarding-schools, for I visited one or two whose fees would place them in that class, but who, there was reason to believe, were doing the best they could for their pupils in an honest way. One instance occurs to me in which the difficulty as to assistant teachers was got over by the partnership of two trained masters in a private boarding school, which they taught entirely themselves. It was rather a rough place, but they were, so far as I could judge, estimable men and vigorous teachers, and the education they gave was of good quality, so far as it went. There are probably other such cases, to which the account given above would not apply, except as regards the salaries of the assistants and the generally bad accommodation. It is not from a wide induction that I can profess to describe, for, as has been said already, schools of this type are not numerous in the country, and most of them lie in such remote places that I could visit but few. Of these few, however, some were so atrociously bad that it would have been impossible to pass them over in silence. In a bad form I believe the cheap boarding-schools to be not uncommon; in their worst form they are perhaps rare. But this is not enough. That schools should be rare in which children have no air and little decency in their sleeping rooms, a scanty dole of flesh meat at their meals, no instruction worth the name, nothing free, cheerful, honest in their life at any time, that these schools should be rare is not enough—they should be impossible.

General Character of Private Adventure as compared with Endowed Schools.

In prosecuting an inquiry into the private schools it was hardly possible to avoid instituting comparisons, often almost unconsciously, between their state and prospects and those of the endowed schools. Such a comparison brings out the peculiar merits and defects of both; it makes clearer the nature of the relation they hold to one another; it even reflects some light upon the question so much discussed, as to whether the present state of education calls for endowment and public supervision at all.

Educational character and aims of private schools as compared with endowed.

Of the relative social position of the endowed and private schools I have spoken already. The difference in their educational character is probably less strongly marked than in some other parts of England; for the Lancashire grammar schools have been a good deal modernized. Nevertheless the private schools are distinctly more commercial. The better class of them, though they teach Latin, set less store by it and spend less time on it: the smaller and cheaper do not teach it at all. Greek, which is at a sufficiently low ebb in the grammar schools, does not exist in more than about a dozen private ones. It is taught, as will be stated subsequently, to little more than one per cent. of the boys

in the schools which have made returns. Mathematics are equally regarded or rather disregarded in both. French, on the other hand, as well as natural science, while utterly unknown in the meaner private schools, is in the better ones pursued much more briskly than by the grammar school masters, and parents either are, or are supposed to be, charmed by the attention bestowed on what they call a "practical" subject. As respects the methods of teaching in use there is very little to choose between the two. Possibly we find more often among private teachers some one familiar with new ideas and improved systems; but against this must be set the greater rarity of pretentious incompetence among the masters of the grammar schools. Both labour under very much the same defects in the manner of their teaching and organization, and in both may the same complaint be made of the want of any sufficient means of testing the quality of the work done.

Their relative position as regards fees.

Before comparing the cost of education in these two sets of schools, it is necessary to remember that some few endowed schools still remain free, or with rates of charges lower than would be the case had not their teaching been till of late years given gratis. Setting aside these, however, the fees paid in the smaller endowed schools may be pronounced higher than those of the petty private schools, such as we find them in the manufacturing towns; 4*l.* per annum is perhaps a fair average for the former, 2*l.* or 2*l.* 10*s.* for the latter. With the superior schools the relation is reversed. The best private schoolmasters charge fees considerably higher than any grammar school in the county, fees rising as high for a complete English and classical education as 16*l.* or 18*l.*, or even 20*l.*, while in no foundation school is more than 12*l.* 12*s.* paid, in very few more than 8*l.* 8*s.* Inasmuch as the grammar school master does not pay rent, and receives a fixed salary, this difference is reasonable and natural: it is the undue cheapness of the small private schools that may excite surprise, though the cause is unfortunately too obvious.

As respects buildings accommodation.

As regards their buildings and other external appliances, it is necessary to distinguish between those two classes of private day schools, A. and B., to which reference has so frequently been made already. Places of the former type, being recently established and depending for their success in great measure on the favourable impression which they can make on the inquiring eyes of a parent, are frequently spacious, neat, comfortable, better supplied with school furniture and the apparatus of teaching than the more old-fashioned grammar school. On the other hand, the lower class of private schools is worse, if that be possible, than the corresponding class of endowed schools. Their rooms are not so old, and not more dirty, but they are even more foul and stifling. The small grammar school has generally its own building, gloomy enough within, but at any rate better than the closet-like apartments of small dwelling-houses in which the private teacher gathers his flock.

To pronounce any general judgment on the comparative effi-

ciency of these two classes of schools would be an almost impossible task, so great are the differences to be noted between the members of each class itself. I shall not venture, therefore, to do more than indicate the strong and weak points of either system, as they display themselves in daily action. The private schools maintain themselves and win the support of parents by various merits, some real, some supposed, nor can these merits be more fitly described than in the words which I have heard private schoolmasters themselves employ.

Causes of the success of many private schools competing with endowed.

Considering not only the great number, but the respectable and in some cases the conspicuous efficiency of the grammar and other public schools of Lancashire, it cannot but excite surprise that the private adventure schools should be found holding their ground against rivals who appear to enjoy so many advantages for a struggle. The latter have publicity on their side, the influence of men of mark—their trustees or governors,—a reputation inherited from past years, and fixed salaries to increase the incomes of their masterships. Nevertheless the private schools flourish and abound, even in Liverpool, where the three great public schools supply an education perhaps as good and cheap as any in the kingdom, and in towns like Lancaster, Preston, and Bury, where the grammar school is regarded with pride by every inhabitant. Their success may be accounted for in some towns by the comparatively low scale of their fees; in others by a prejudice, more or less well founded, against the grammar school as being either too classical or too exclusively managed in the interests of the Church of England. But neither of these circumstances can be thought sufficient to account for a phenomenon so wide-spread, and showing itself under such a diversity of conditions. The private schoolmasters themselves, when I sought light from them on the subject, ascribed it to a great many various reasons, which might, it seemed to me, be eventually reduced to three. Of these it is well to say a few words.

The private school a sort of commercial business.

The first is what may be called, without offence, the commercial character of the concern. A private schoolmaster has the most lively and the most abiding stimulus to exertion—his own pecuniary interest. He is alone responsible for the management of the school, the good conduct of the boys, and their progress in their studies; there is no body of governors, no system of absolute rules, no ill-conditioned but irremoveable second master on whom the blame of failure can be shifted. He must therefore be regardful of the whole school equally, not merely of the most advanced boys or of the classical and mathematical teaching. Holding the same position towards parents that a shopkeeper holds to his customers, he must see that all the wares are good, and endeavour, by attention to business and a careful study of their wishes, to gain and keep fast their patronage.

Capacity of the private school to suit itself to exigencies of time or place.

Secondly. It is inherent in the private school system to be more flexible and more adaptable to the needs of the time or the place than foundation schools can possibly be. For whereas the arrange-

ments of the latter can only be changed by a tedious and perhaps expensive process of law, those of the former, depending as they do on the will of the master alone, may be varied at his pleasure. Thus private schools are more perfectly in harmony with the age, and better reflect the wishes and ideas of the communities wherein they arise. Nothing will be taught in them which common sense rejects; the attention given to each subject will be measured by its practical importance in the eyes of the parent. In other words, the principle of demand and supply will act, and act beneficially; the goods produced will be those which suit the taste of the consumer. What, however, if the consumer be himself ignorant and ill-judging?

Alleged superiority of private schools in individual teaching.

Thirdly. The arrangements of private schools permit, it is said, of a far more particular attention being given to each individual boy than is or can be done in the grammar schools. This was the answer which I found usually given in Liverpool to the question which I had such frequent occasion to put, "How do you private "schoolmasters contrive to resist the competition of the College "and the Institute; they are huge concerns, managed by influential "men, with numbers so large as to admit of a perfect organization; "they ought to be able to undersell you, just as a great clothing "establishment ruins the small tailors and haberdashers?" The answer was always the same. "We give more care and attention "to the individual boy, and the parents, especially if the boy is "not quick, know that he will get on better with us. I have only "40 pupils in my school, and in each class perhaps only five or "six; I know what each one of them can do, and am able to bring "him on in the way that suits him best. If he were sent to the "College or the Institute he would be thrown into a class of 40 "or 50, where the teacher would not notice whether he did his "work or not; and when the parent complained, there would be "nobody to get satisfaction from, for the head-master would know "nothing about it. This boy here (pointing to one) was taken "away from the Institute because he did not get on there. He "has been just a year with me, and only last week his father came "to me and said that he had shown his writing to Mr. So-and-so's "head clerk, and that he had promised to remember him when "there was a vacancy in their house."

Very similar were the statements of the teachers in the small schools scattered through the manufacturing district. All declared that they brought on boys by individual teaching who would never have come to anything in a big school. Obviously they are so far right, that it is easier to have a personal knowledge of each one of 40 boys than of 400; easier to do work with him alone, and pull him up if he turns lazy. Very possibly some boys are made more of in these small schools than they could be in any other way; just as there are boys for whom solitary tuition at home might be the best means of education.

Real value of this method of handling boys.

But tried by its general results, its effects on classes examined in the ordinary subjects of instruction, the plan, so far as I could

judge, breaks down. Among both the private and the endowed schools which I examined, the larger were almost invariably the better; and this not merely because good teachers succeed in collecting a greater number of pupils. There seems to be something depressing in the very atmosphere of a small school. It may be that they have a larger proportion of naturally dull boys than the big schools, and if this be so it is unfair to draw a comparison. Certainly I could never discover, in examining these small private schools, that their boys were any the better for the minute attention they were alleged to have received. They almost always answered worse and did their arithmetic worse than boys in the endowed or larger private schools. There was not perhaps so great a contrast among them as one finds between the head and the tail of a class of 50 in a great school. But that is not because they were all as good as the head, but rather because they were all tail. The average level of one of these small cheap schools is little above that of the worst boys in such schools as the College or the Institute at Liverpool, or in the largest grammar schools of the county.

What is "individual teaching?"

The reason of this seems plain when one watches these small schools at work. "Individual teaching," as they call it, does not mean the bestowal of good private tuition upon each boy. It does not even mean the supplementing of collective teaching by half an hour or so spent each day with the boy alone. It means the neglect of class teaching, and the attempt to replace it by giving the fortieth share of a teacher's attention to each of forty boys at once—the most wasteful and purposeless of all possible methods of teaching. It means a frittering and scattering of power and thought, an absence of order and discipline in the schoolroom, the discouragement of the habit of voluntary attention, the loss of symmetry, and energy, and precision—of that sympathy and momentum which enables a regiment of 800 soldiers and a class of 40 boys to perform marches and overcome difficulties together which none of them could have faced by himself.

Parents, however, not having observed the working, do not generally know the truth of the matter, and it is quite true that one chief reason why they are found so ready to support the small private school is the notion that their children will receive more attention (and therefore make better progress) where the pupils are few, where they can call upon the master and give themselves towards him the airs of an employer.

There does not seem, therefore, to be any ground for reckoning this among the merits of the private adventure schools, however much it may conduce to their success. But the two other causes assigned do, it can hardly be doubted, represent advantages of the system which are real, albeit liable to be turned aside to evil. The commercial desire to satisfy parents may, and often does, degenerate into puffing, or into something which is to honest school-keeping what adulteration is to honest provision dealing. The readiness of a private school to take the standard which parents fix is a misfortune if that standard is already too low, for it perpetuates

the evil it ought to cure. Nevertheless, the private schools have, in many parts of Lancashire, done something which endowed schools have neglected, and have by their competition greatly raised the tone of the latter. But an acknowledgment of their services in this respect makes it all the more necessary to point out, in conclusion, those defects in them, taken as a whole, which make it more than doubtful whether an adequate supply of the educational needs of the country can ever be looked for from them.

Recapitulation of the defects of the private school system as a whole.

1. Small schools—and nine-tenths of the private schools are small—cannot be so well organized, have such good buildings, give such large salaries to masters, do as much for the success in after-life of their pupils, as large schools can. Just as large warehouses and large joint-stock companies drive small shopkeepers out of the field, so a school with some plant and capital, with a permanent character, and with a number of persons interested in helping it on, must necessarily be able to give a better education than one without all these advantages.

(1.) Small size of the private schools.

2. This is more particularly felt in one point—the salaries given to teachers. The head-masters of private schools are in some cases men of ability and high education. Their assistants, even in the best schools, scarcely ever are. The majority are deficient in every way, half-educated, without any knowledge of teaching, without the force of character to rule and guide boys.* Some few are worthy, painstaking people, doing obscure duties to the best of their powers, but never, so far as I could observe, doing them with spirit or energy. This is not merely because such pitiful salaries are offered them; it is because the position is socially low and holds out little prospect of anything better. Men of ability are willing to take subordinate places in endowed schools, even not of the first rank, because they have a status and an opportunity by good service there of getting, after a while, a grammar school mastership for themselves. They are, it is true, under the direction of the head-master, but they serve not him but the foundation; they have a public and recognized position. In private schools they exist as part of the owner's money-making machinery, and whatever they do redounds not to their credit but to the benefit of his pocket. This feeling is of course strongest in the case of private boarding-schools, where the assistant-master has not only to teach but to "look after" the boys, and it is quite strong enough to outweigh the temptations of a far larger salary than is usually attached to such a place.

(2.) Scanty salaries and consequent inefficiency of the assistants.

3. In a private school there is a danger that the tone of both master and scholars will be somewhat lower than in a school under public management. The teacher, unless he be a man of exceptional strength of character, feels his dependance upon the parents as an annoyance, it may be a degradation. If the desire to please them stimulates him, the knowledge that they must often be pleased in some unworthy way mortifies, even if it does not tempt him. It

(3.) Tendencies operating for evil on masters and boys.

* See letter printed in the Appendix.

may be said that the dealer in education is, after all, no worse off than any other dealer. This is only to state the evil in another form. A person entrusted with such important functions ought not to discharge them in the spirit of a dealer, nor be looked on as such. Moreover, so far as it is an argument, it is a false one; for the teacher is thus much worse off than any other dealer that, as there is nothing about which the customer knows so little as about the education of his children, so there is none in regard to which he is more unreasonable and capricious, requiring the seller to gratify his passing notions, and objecting quite as often to the goodness as to the badness of the article. The endowed schoolmaster is not exempt from the same temptations and annoyances, but he is better placed for meeting and resisting them. So, too, with the scholars. There is in most private schools a want of *esprit de corps* and public spirit. The boys have nothing to link them together. The school is not a permanent institution, has no traditions, nothing to make them feel an interest in it after they have left it. Having no connexion with the Universities, it has no field on which to distinguish itself, and nothing to connect it with the higher education of the country. Hence its members do not regard it as an institution in which to feel pride or interest, and the absence of a corporate spirit makes it harder to maintain a healthy public opinion among them, and put teachers and pupils on a friendly footing. These, it may be thought, are not very serious evils, and may be overcome by the ingenuity and vigour of a popular master. Nevertheless private teachers are often sensible of their presence.

Operation of the principle of demand and supply: its effect in depressing the level of fees and of teaching.

4. The last objection to the private adventure system is one which could not be fully examined without a discussion of questions properly belonging to political economy. Private schools exist and are defended on the hypothesis that the principle of demand and supply is as well fitted to regulate education as the course of ordinary trade; and that, since endowments are faulty because they interfere with the spontaneous working of this principle, so private schools are right because in conformity with it. Into the general question it is not necessary to enter here. It is enough to observe that the facts already stated seem to show that in the case of Lancashire the principle has not operated with success. Tried even by its value for mercantile purposes, the education is, if the merchants and other employers of intelligent labour are to be believed, far from satisfactory. Much less is it so if judged by any absolute standard of efficiency, or by the standards furnished by other countries—by Germany, America, and Scotland. We need not, however, go to these for proof. The statistics supplied by the schools themselves show how few boys, even of the sons of well-to-do parents, learn any but the most elementary subjects. The complaints of the more intelligent parents themselves, that even these subjects are not taught well, were in the great majority of cases confirmed by my own observations; and the teachers themselves often declare that they would teach more if the parents

would let them follow their own judgment, and would teach better if they had wherewithal to pay better assistants. The narrow-mindedness of most parents, say they, forbids the first, their short-sighted indifference to really good teaching the second. The principle of supply and demand acts, but the chief demand is for so indifferent an article that it does not pay to supply a better one. The reasons of this seem to be two.

Causes of the low state of private school teaching. Estimate of the worth of education for practical life.

Firstly. Education has only to a very limited extent a recognized money value. For business purposes a boy who adds and subtracts correctly and quickly, and writes a good hand, is a more highly priced article and commands a larger salary than one who does these things ill. And in some cases (but after all they are comparatively few) a boy who knows some French and can put English sentences grammatically together in a letter, may make these capacities turn to his pecuniary benefit. But the value for business either of general knowledge or of that kind of education which shows itself in the healthy activity of several faculties and the existence of some literary or scientific taste is, if it exists at all, at any rate nowise admitted or regarded by business men. Most of them would think a youth rather the worse for it, inasmuch as if he is fond of books he is supposed more likely to neglect his work. One cannot but believe that whatever increases the total intelligence of a boy helps him to succeed in almost any walk of life, and towards this a good education might do something. But such general intelligence, as it cannot be measured or tested, has no more direct value for a young man entering a counting-house than a knowledge of choric metres or quaternions.

Depression of fees by competition of State-supported schools.

Secondly. The State has already interfered with the law of supply and demand in education. It supports by annual grants schools whose fees are so low that all educational payments are correspondingly depressed. The instruction given in these schools is often ample enough for commercial requirements, hence the so-called middle class, especially the poorer section of it, resort largely to them, and the private schoolmaster is exposed to the competition of those very persons, National and British schoolmasters, whom he is himself, as a taxpayer, supporting. In this way his fees are kept below their natural and proper level.

Failure of the supply and demand principle much more conspicuous in the case of the cheap schools.

It will be understood, then, that this failure of the principle of supply and demand which most of my informants concurred in declaring to have happened in Lancashire, is much more conspicuous in the case of the lower than of the upper private schools. That the upper or more expensive schools are in all respects satisfactory is more than their masters would themselves affirm. Complaints may be and are brought against them, as against the grammar schools, and the national schools, and the universities themselves. But, taken all in all, they are probably giving an education as good in its way as any other class of schools in the country. They are able to charge fees high enough, not indeed to give such an education as might *à priori* be desired, yet still an education substantially good of its kind. But this does not appear

to arise from the value set by the parents upon that education; it is rather due to a very different set of causes. The merchants, manufacturers, and rich shopkeepers whose children fill these schools are persons moving in what is called "society," and amenable to its public opinion; they desire therefore that their sons should go to a school whose rooms are comfortable, where the teachers are well mannered and the pupils "select," and where the instruction is supposed to be good. They think this belongs to their position in life, just as does a house in a genteel situation, and they are willing to pay a fair price for it. But the small shopkeepers, clerks, and warehousemen who use the cheap schools are swayed by no such motives: gentility and the opinion of their class counts for very little with them; they send a boy to school to read, write, learn accounts, and be kept out of the way; and as they know little and care less about the quality of the instruction given him, they are willing to get it anywhere, as cheap as it can be got. Many, as has been said, take advantage of the National and British schools; others who could well afford to pay 10*l.* a year for a good education are content to have a bad one at 3*l.* or 4*l.* from some person who is just as fit to teach and no fitter than they are themselves. There is more similarity than may at first appear between their conduct and that of the miner or nailmaker who takes his children into the pit or the forge at ten years old. Both set an equally low value on education; both prefer an immediate pecuniary gain to the true advantage of their children: the one puts the child's wages in his pocket; the other saves what ought to have been spent on improving the child's intelligence and his chance of success in life. In Lancashire the extraordinary social and economical changes of the last seventy years have made the evils of this deplorable state of things perhaps more conspicuous than in any other part of England. The county has, so to speak, taken a sudden leap out of one age into another, and no steps have been taken to supply the new institutions which an altered condition of society demands. The old theory about education—the theory which prevailed when the grammar schools were founded and for a good while after, was that education, like religion, should be supplied to everyone free, *i. e.*, not at his own cost, though it might be at that of some one else. This doctrine took shape in the foundation of endowed schools, where instruction should be given to all comers; and the number of these schools was in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries not inadequate to the wants of the country.

Since those days the population of Lancashire has quadrupled, and the old grammar schools are as completely outgrown as the ancient parochial arrangements; as incapable of educating the children, I will not say of all classes, but even of persons above the labouring class, as are the old parish churches of supplying to them the ministrations of religion. In the case of the latter the legislature has been invoked; revenues have been readjusted; the

liberality of private persons has erected countless places of worship for every persuasion of Christians; an effort more or less successful has been made to suit the old system to the new exigencies of the times, and supply that which was lacking to its stiffness and clumsiness. As regards the schools, other than the elementary schools, nothing has been done; the inadequacy of the old arrangements has been sometimes confessed but seldom taken to heart, and men have been satisfied to see a crop of new schools spring up on the neglected soil, not asking themselves whether a little forethought and earnestness might not have planted something far better. One trace of the old doctrine still survives, and that a most unlucky one. Although the schoolmaster is now paid by the parent and not by the public, men's minds are possessed by the notion that he ought to ask no more than it suits them to give; that education is a commodity to which they are entitled, if not for nothing, at an exceptionally low charge. It is exactly because he was once a public functionary that the teacher is now the worst paid of private ones.*

Evil results of the competition of many small schools.

The pecuniary aspect of the matter cannot be too much dwelt on, for it is at the root of all the difficulties and evils of the private schools. But it is not actually a question of raising the fees, even though it were proved that they might safely be raised. The present system, with its crowd of schools, each too small and too poor to be good, each keeping the others down by competition, is the most wasteful that can be thought of. If, to put a case, the 700 or 800 children of persons belonging to the middle class in a town like Bolton or Blackburn, now spread over five small private and a number of national schools, were all gathered into one, they might, at no higher charge, be given an education at least twice as good; they would have neater rooms and better air to breathe; they would be distributed into classes suitable to their stage of progress; their teachers would be men selected for their knowledge of and skill in teaching some particular subject, instead of vainly trying to teach all at once. Whether such a school should be under public management or the property of some individual, is another question, which may for the present be passed by. In either case it could not fail to be better than the small schools are now—its very prominence in the eyes of the world would ensure this. This conclusion—that the cheap private schools are now in a low state of efficiency, teaching too little, and not teaching that little well, and that something should be done if possible to improve, if not, why then to supplant them—is the conclusion which the testimony of my informants in Lancashire, as well as my own observations, pointed out as that to which it was chiefly desirable that your attention should be called. Those other results which have been already indicated may be summed up as follows:—

General conclusions.

* That the fees of the small private schools are too low will hardly be thought to require proof. From forty boys, each paying 3*l.* per annum, the teacher gains 120*l.*: 20*l.* of this goes to his rent, if the premises are at all respectable; 20*l.* more to an assistant; and he is left to maintain himself and his family upon 80*l.*

1. That both parents and schoolmasters feel the need of some means of testing the capacity of the teacher and the quality of the school.
2. That the weak point of all private adventure schools is the incompetence of the assistant-masters in them.
3. That the teaching of the more expensive schools, though often good, has a tendency to become superficially practical, rather than exact and thorough.
4. That parents attach an undue value to the individual teaching supposed to be given in small private schools.
5. That the low fees and consequent badness of the cheap private schools is in great measure due to the competition of Government schools, charging fees almost nominal, and accustoming the people to be content with a poor and narrow education.
6. That the condition of some of the cheap boarding schools, as regards accommodation, instruction, and moral tone, is shamefully bad.
7. That the operation of the principle of demand and supply has failed to provide private schools sufficiently numerous and sufficiently good.
8. That in extending and improving a system of schools (whether endowed or unendowed) under public management—a measure urgently needed—it would be desirable to secure some of the advantages of private adventure schools, and in particular the dependence of the teacher's income on the number of his pupils.
9. That the extension of such a public-school system would tend to raise the standard of all private schools, and ultimately to extinguish the worst of them.
10. That there is no reason to fear that it would prove fatal to private enterprise, or destroy the healthy rivalry which now exists between the endowed and the best of the private schools.

CHAPTER III.

Proprietary and other Miscellaneous Schools.

Besides the endowed and the private adventure schools, there are several others in Lancashire which it is sometimes found convenient to class together under the name proprietary, although such a name is in strictness inapplicable to most of them. Such schools, however, are by no means so numerous or so important in Lancashire as in some other parts of England; they do not therefore require any description as a class, although a brief account may be given of

those among them which fill conspicuous places and palpably affect the education of the county as a whole.

Of these Stonyhurst College is the oldest, and in many respects the most peculiar. It is the property of and entirely managed by members of the Company of Jesus, and, like all the establishments of that renowned order, is self-governing and financially self-supporting. The spot in which it stands is one of the most beautiful in Lancashire—I might almost say in England,—high up on the slope of a hill overlooking the delicious valleys of the Hodder and Ribble; the Yorkshire fells on the north and east; in front, to the south and south-west, the open undulating country of central Lancashire, the smoke of whose great manufacturing towns is just seen upon the horizon. Externally the buildings are handsome, and the chief rooms, the refectory and exhibition-room, for instance, the library, museum, and picture gallery, are spacious and elegant. Some of the school-rooms are not satisfactory in point of size and ventilation, but I was given to understand that it was proposed shortly to enlarge them or build new ones. There is a farm attached, for the community is well endowed with land, as well as gardens and an extensive playground. Stonyhurst College.

Educationally regarded, the institution consists of three parts, a theological seminary, a college for the general education of young men, and the school. The whole are under the direction of the rector, and his principal lieutenant, the prefect of studies, both of whom, as well as some of the professors, are senior members of the society, while the inferior teachers are young men who have completed their noviciate, and who usually remain here from the age of 24 or 25 till they are about 30. It is only the school that need be described here, yet a systematic account of it would occupy so much space that it is perhaps better to be content with remarking on those peculiar features by which it is distinguished from Protestant establishments of the same class.

1. The system, although distinctly classical, is less exclusively so than at such schools as Eton, Harrow, or Shrewsbury. Less stress is laid on Latin and Greek composition; a good deal of attention is paid to mathematics, and provision is made for the teaching of natural science, systematically to the more advanced pupils, and by occasional lectures, some eight in the year, to the younger ones. A large proportion of the school, at present about 37 per cent., learn music.

2. Each boy, instead of passing under the hands of different teachers in succession as he rises from class to class through the school, continues always under the same master from the beginning to the end of his course. By this plan, it is said, his character and aptitudes can be better known and provided for, and a greater moral influence gained over him. On the other hand, there is a loss of intellectual variety, and of the stimulus which the action of a new mind exerts.

3. The avowed object of the teaching is to bring every boy up to a certain level rather than to raise a few to a very high pitch of excellence. In most great schools every class, except the highest,

Stonyhurst College.

has its tail—boys who, sometimes from dulness, more often from idleness, are far below those at the head of the class, and immeasurably separated from some of their companions who entered school along with them, and who, upon a system of promotion by seniority, like that of Stonyhurst, would have risen through the school along with them. One may find the better boys of a class able to write neat elegiacs, while those at the tail can hardly make out a line of Ovid. The Stonyhurst system seeks to destroy this tail, and seems, from all that I could ascertain, to succeed in doing so.* Of course something is lost. There are far fewer ignorant boys, but there are also fewer brilliant ones.

4. The teaching staff of the establishment is entirely distinct from that to which discipline, and the care of the boys during the hours of play, of meals, and of sleep is entrusted. This is carried so far that the teacher does not even inflict a punishment for an offence committed in the class room. If he desires to punish a boy, he says to him, "Go to Mr. So-and-so (a prefect) and ask for four" (*i.e.* four blows on the hand, this being the mode in which corporal punishment, when found necessary, is administered). The boy rises from his seat, leaves the room, and proceeds to that of the prefect named (who is one of the "prefects of discipline"); he knocks at the door and enters. "Well, what is it?" "If you please, sir, I was told to ask for four." "By whom?" Then the boy gives the name of his teacher. The prefect records it in the punishment book, and duly administers the strokes. One advantage that attends this arrangement is that since the punishment is inflicted by a person not personally offended, it is done without passion or excess. A second, I was told, is to be found in dissociating in the boy's mind the controlling and restraining power from the teaching one. He gets on the better, it is said, with each set of superiors, for not being perpetually in contact with the same set.

5. The most peculiar feature in the disciplinary system is the superintendence so unremittingly maintained at all hours. In the playground, two prefects walk up and down in the midst while games go on; during the preparation of lessons a prefect sits in a pulpit looking over the room full of boys and enforcing the strictest silence; and at night, when the boys have gone to bed, prefects pass at intervals through the dormitories, to see that all is quiet, and that no boy leaves his own compartment. Only once in the year, at Midsummer, do the pupils return to their homes. Of the working of this system I had no means of judging except from the demeanour of the boys at play, and they appeared to be enjoying themselves without a sense of restraint. The authorities of the college consider surveillance indispensable to good order where numbers are so great, and assured me that their relations with the boys were of so intimate and cordial a nature that their visible

* The examiners at the University of London, to whose examinations so many Stonyhurst young men resort, speak highly of the general neatness, care, and accuracy of the work done.

presence during play, and their possible though unseen presence in the dormitories, was not felt to be a check but rather a pleasure. Stonyhurst College.

6. Religion, as might be expected, is to a great extent the life of the place and the system, and becomes incidentally a powerful agent in the government of the scholars. There is among them a confraternity, consisting of some forty boys, who, while attending the ordinary services in the great chapel, possess also a separate chapel, in which service is performed at extra hours. They renew their body by electing the most deserving of their schoolfellows, are looked up to by the rest, enjoy various privileges, and are treated with peculiar confidence by their preceptors. In this way they have the means of exerting a great influence over the whole body; and a powerful incentive to good conduct is stated to be found in the ambition by which the younger boys are animated to be thought worthy of the honour of membership.

Although its isolation is in some respects an advantage to Stonyhurst, it is found in other ways to operate unfortunately. Oxford and Cambridge having been hitherto practically closed to Roman Catholics, partly by the regulations of most of the colleges in those Universities, partly by the views maintained by the heads of the Roman Catholic church in England, young men from Stonyhurst cannot measure themselves against those who come from the great Protestant schools, and must content themselves with the honours of the University of London. The absence of that stimulus, which is found so necessary and so valuable to all other schools of the first rank, cannot but have an unfortunate effect in dulling the ardour with which study should be pursued, and giving to intellectual effort a less hearty and more mechanical character. In spite of this, however, the great powers which a monastic community possesses, its abundant supply of teachers, its capacity for organization, its hold over the minds of the young, the harmony and zeal with which all its members labour for a common aim, will no doubt enable Stonyhurst to maintain the high position which it holds, and to give to the youth of its own communion an education not less thorough, although certainly less free and less stimulating, than that which may be obtained in the greatest Protestant foundations.

Rossall is the only representative in the county of what is vulgarly called the "public school" system. It was founded in A.D. 1844 by subscription, chiefly through the disinterested zeal of a Lancashire clergyman, the Rev. St. Vincent Beechey, and was fortunate enough, not long after its foundation, to find a warm friend and experienced guide in the Dean of Manchester, who had already done so much for schools of a similar class in the south of England. Its primary object, as described in its prospectus, was "to give an "education to the sons of clergymen and others, similar to that of "the great public schools, but without the great cost of Eton or "Harrow, and embracing also a more general course of instruction "in modern literature and science." Rossall school.

Strictly speaking, it is not a proprietary but an endowed school,

Rossall school.

established and endowed to the extent of its buildings and grounds, which belong to it in perpetuity, and of divers exhibitions, school scholarships, and prizes,* the revenue supporting which comes from sums of money vested in the three trustees. There are no shares, nor has any person any direct pecuniary interest in the success of the school, all surplus income being expended on the school itself. There are three bodies entitled to control the school affairs. First, the life governors—persons who have subscribed 52*l.* 10*s.* under the old constitution, 105*l.* under the new, to the funds of the institution, and who are entitled to nominate one pupil (who pays 10*l.* less than ordinary pupils), and to vote at all general meetings upon all questions that may from time to time be discussed there. Secondly, the council, consisting of 24 members, 14 clergymen and 10 laymen, besides the chairman, vice-chairman, treasurer, and secretary, self-elected, that is to say, filling up vacancies in their own body, and not responsible to the life governors. The head master has an *ex officio* seat, though not a vote, in this body, which meets quarterly, and is supreme over all the ordinary affairs of the school. The details of financial administration, however, are committed to a third body, the monthly board, elected by the council from among themselves, and consisting chiefly of laymen. The head master is in practice left to settle the studies of the school, control its discipline, appoint and dismiss the under masters, but he is required to report to the council at its quarterly meeting what has been done by him since the preceding meeting. The constitution, so far as I could learn, works well; business is promptly despatched by the monthly board, and a cordial relation prevails between the council and the head master. The school having been originally designed to do for the poorer clergy of the north of England what Marlborough College has done for those in the south, the sons (or dependent wards) of clergymen of the English church are received at a reduced fee, 52*l.* per annum (if nominated 42*l.*), while sons of laymen pay 65*l.* (if nominated 55*l.*) In other respects there is no distinction between the two classes of boys.

The curriculum is classical throughout, but with a "modern" department, which boys may enter after passing through the two lowest classes of the school, that is, when they are about 13 or 14 years of age. In this modern school, which is undertaken by a distinct staff of masters, no Greek is taught, and Latin, though still kept up, occupies much less time than would be given to it in the classical school. The time thus gained is given to modern languages, mathematics, and drawing, there being five classes, each with its special subject, corresponding to the nature of the occupation for which the boys in it are designed. These are the military class, the naval class, the civil service class, the civil engineering class, the mercantile class. An interesting account of the general arrangements of the modern school, and the way in which the

* These have been from time to time established, some by subscription, others by the munificent liberality of Mr. George Swainson, of Liverpool, to whose warm sympathy and constant exertions on its behalf the institution is largely indebted for its present prosperity.

difficulties incident to a bifurcative system have been met, will be found in the letter which the head master was good enough to write me on the subject, and which I subjoin.* Rossall school.

* "I established the modern school about ten years ago, with three principal objects, partly to provide a direct training for the Army and Civil Service examinations, and obviate the necessity for private tuition (or cramming), partly to meet an increasing demand for the substitution of modern languages for Greek, and English writing for Greek and Latin verse composition, and partly from a conviction that I should thus free the classes in my upper and middle schools from the dead weight of those boys who take no interest in their classical studies, from the knowledge that they are not likely at any time to proceed to the universities.

"I divided the school into separate classes, army, navy, civil service, civil engineering, and mercantile; placed it, for the sake of the military and engineering classes, under a Cambridge wrangler of high mathematical attainments; assigned to it a large proportion of the time of our French and German masters, limiting the classical instruction to Virgil and Livy with the senior, and Cæsar with the junior master; and added lectures and practical instruction in natural science and chemistry, with a laboratory and other necessary apparatus.

"Our lower school is common to both departments, and the bifurcation does not commence till the question arises whether a boy shall learn Greek or not. To prevent too great a pressure I have inserted the following paragraph in the prospectus of the modern school :—'It is recommended that boys be placed in the classical school, if 'there is any possibility that their parents will hereafter wish to give them a classical 'education, as it will be easy at any time to pass from the classical school to the 'upper classes of the modern, but the converse transition would involve much 'difficulty and loss of time to the pupil.'

"The modern school at once received 60 pupils, but by the above recommendation and my personal advice to parents, I have confined the number to an average of 80, or about one-fifth of the total number of the school. In the mercantile class only a few boys are allowed to dispense with Latin. This proportion does not affect or lower the general character of the school as a larger one might do.

"Emulation is sufficiently excited by the fact that many of the upper boys are preparing for immediate competitive examinations for Sandhurst or Woolwich, or for Government offices, while the highest boys in each class are eligible to be monitors, and if so elected have all the privileges and responsibilities of my own sixth form. Besides, in our periodical examinations in sciences, mathematics, modern history, and geography, French and German, natural and experimental science, English literature and language, we blend both schools together, and there is a wholesome rivalry as to the proficiency displayed and the relative position of the boys in both departments, which not only gives vigour to the modern school, but leads many boys in the classical to give attention to subjects which would otherwise be little cared for or even totally neglected. Thus, though natural science is only compulsory in the modern, many boys in the general school stand well in these competitions. Many boys, and these not the least successful, are only transferred to the modern school in the last year or two of their career, and this tends among other things to keep all on a footing of social equality in the playground and daily life.

"It is a collateral advantage to parents that they are enabled to place a son intended or public offices or commercial labours in the same school where the elder boy is training for the universities, and the former gains the social and physical benefits of public school life with the more distinctive instruction for which in the present day the demand is so general. We gain also in a greater facility for discovering the powers and bias of lads who have no great classical proclivities, and being able to provide French and German masters of a higher class for the whole school.

"I reserve the Indian Civil Service preparation for myself and our senior mathematical master, but I have added law and medical classes to the modern school to meet the requirements for the new examination. I have found no drawback except at the first, when idle boys teased parents to ask for a transfer under the idea that the work was easier, but this is easily obviated by an increase of evening work in the modern, and the encouragement of special tuition for all boys of this class.

"The one essential point is to keep up the mathematical standard to at least a level with our own in the classical school.

"You will see that I consider modern education (so called) a necessity, but I am far from thinking it an unmixed gain for those so educated. I should prefer greatly to teach all boys in our general school mathematics, Greek, and Latin, with more of modern languages and general knowledge than the old system allowed up to 14 or 16, according to their destination, and to give them only one or two years in a modern school.

Rossall School. Respecting the arrangements and methods of the classical school I need not speak, as they do not essentially differ from those which exist in the other great classical schools of England; and as they are set forth with some fulness in the papers which the school authorities have laid before you. Nor is there much that calls for special remark in the system of boarding and discipline. The boys are not assigned to separate masters living in separate houses, as is the case at Harrow and Rugby, and to some slight extent at Marlborough and Clifton also, but are all, as at Haileybury and Wellington, lodged in the same pile of buildings, being distributed into several large dormitories, each of which is placed under the charge of one of the masters, whose room immediately adjoins it, and who, without exercising any offensive surveillance, is able to see that order is duly preserved. There is also in each dormitory a captain charged to maintain quiet. Wooden partitions raised to a height of eight or ten feet from the floor divide a dormitory into a great many small chambers, in each of which one boy sleeps. Thus silence is enforced without much difficulty, and privacy secured to the more timid boys, while at the same time the ventilation is good (the upper part of the dormitory being quite open), and the air remains tolerably pure all night long. These dormitories are not inhabited except at night, the younger boys learning their lessons together in large rooms in other parts of the building, while studies, of which there are already more than one hundred, are provided for the elder boys. In these they keep their books and do their evening work.

The country round Rossall is not beautiful; it is a wide, silent, sandy plain, with no object to relieve the monotonous landscape except here and there a gaunt windmill. But the Irish Sea is full in front, the boys can bathe all summer long, and disport themselves upon the beach summer or winter; no school suffers less from sickness. The buildings are partly those of Rossall Hall, which was bought from the Fleetwood family by the founders of the school, partly later additions. Except the new chapel which stands detached on the seashore, and is really very pretty, they are plain externally, but substantial and commodious. The great hall is a spacious and handsome room. A playground of 40 acres lies close by.

The work of the school, as tested at the stated Midsummer examination in which I took part, seemed to me in the main highly creditable. Of the strong and weak points that were then to be observed it is needless to speak particularly, since they may not be the same now as then, and since they are described in the reports issued yearly or oftener by the regular examiners. Much of the classical work of the fifth and sixth forms was excellent; equal, so

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The principles of grammar, accuracy in composition, power of criticism and style, can not be taught so well in any modern language as in the ancient, and experience proves that those transferred from the classical school are more successful than those who have had a modern training from the first. But the prejudices of parents are too strong for us to carry out that system as we could wish, and the practical results of the present one are considerable."

far as I could judge, to that of the other great classical schools of England. Several of the boys whom I examined had already obtained open scholarships at some of the best colleges in Oxford and Cambridge, and these boys, although the best in the sixth, were by no means exceptionally good, but might rather be accounted fair representatives of its general state. In some respects, and more especially as regards the mathematics, there was reason to think that the teaching had been too ambitious, and that that part of it which had been or ought to have been given in the lower forms was not sufficiently thorough. This seemed to point to some deficiency among the younger masters, who, as I understand, receive small salaries, and who appear to be frequently changed. Some of them are scarcely equal to the duties they have to discharge. Counteracted, however, as it is by the skill, matured by long experience, of the head master, and by the activity wherewith the whole establishment is managed by him, as well as by the zeal and ability in teaching of the second master, this defect does not prevent the school work, taken altogether, from deserving much praise. The fees charged are of course an element in estimating the quality of the educational results at any school; and considering not only the instruction, but also the board and accommodation provided at Rossall, the fees must be considered surprisingly low. It is a reproach to many well-endowed grammar schools that they should not effect more when a self-supporting school, which being able to offer only small salaries cannot long retain the services of its more able and ambitious under masters, succeeds in effecting so much. Rossall School.

Although Rossall is the only school of its class in the north of England, and is easily accessible by railway from Manchester, Liverpool, and the manufacturing towns, its connexion, or as the French say, its "clientship," is by no means exclusively or even chiefly in Lancashire. A great many boys come to it from the Midland counties, from Ireland, even from the west and south of England. When a Lancashire merchant or manufacturer sends his sons from home, he desires as often as not to send them a long way off, partly that they may lose their northern tongue, partly that they may form new acquaintances, and be quite away from home influences. Hence, conspicuous as is the place which Rossall holds in Lancashire, there is nothing characteristic of Lancashire about its system, nor does it exert any more direct influence upon the county than is exerted by Rugby, Harrow, or Cheltenham.

The College or, as it was till lately called, the Collegiate Institution in Liverpool is not, any more than Rossall, a proprietary school; it is a foundation school (or rather group of schools), whose endowment consists only in the site and buildings, which are held rent-free, and in certain prizes and exhibitions to the universities which have been established for the benefit of its scholars. The government belongs to a body of life governors, representing the original subscribers, and is exercised by a board of directors appointed by them, in conjunction with donors of 50*l*. This board appoints the head-master and administers all the ordinary business of the establishment. It appoints from among its own members an The Liverpool College.

The Liverpool College.

Education committee, which meets monthly, but which, inspite of its name, is chiefly occupied with questions of finance, andso for th, matters relating to instruction and discipline being usually left to the head-master, who, however, reports to the committee everything of importance that happens.

It is now about twenty-six years since the College was founded,* for the purpose, as the subscribers expressed it, of giving a sound plain education in Church of England principles to boys of the middle, and especially of what is commonly called the lower middle class. Its first years were far from prosperous, and when its late head-master (Dr. Howson, now Dean of Chester) undertook the management in 1849, it was heavily weighted with debt. Under his wise and energetic administration it increased by degrees in numbers and reputation, and when he left it at the end of 1865 there were nearly 900 pupils, and the debt had almost wholly disappeared. Originally the institution had been meant to give a commercial education only, and had consisted of two departments, or "schools," as they are called, the one meant for boys who leave school for trades at 13, the other for boys who enter offices at 15 years of age. Originally it was to have given Church of England dogmatic teaching to every pupil. But in process of time these intentions were departed from. It was perceived that the want of a good classical and mathematical education was scarcely less felt in Liverpool than that of a sound commercial education; and then a third or upper school was added, intended for the sons of the better class of merchants and professional men, and giving to them an education resembling that of the great "public" boarding schools of the south of England. It was also seen that there was nothing to hinder children belonging to the Church of England from receiving instruction in the Prayer Book and Thirty-nine Articles, while other children, whose parents might object thereto, did not receive such instruction; and thus it became the practice for the sons of Nonconformists to attend, and to receive only such religious instruction as their parents might desire.

As you have had from Dr. Howson himself a full account of the arrangements of the school, and as I shall have occasion in a later part of this report to speak of its place and function as one of the great organs of education in Liverpool, I propose to give only the briefest description of it here. It forms a large and handsome pile of buildings in what was thirty years ago a suburb, but is now not far from the heart of Liverpool. Within this pile are the three schools —the upper school in the centre, the lower school on the right hand as one enters, the middle school on the left hand. Each has its own entrance, its own staircase, its own playground at the back. On each floor a corridor runs the whole length of the building, and on this corridor are doors of ground glass, kept constantly locked, so that no one but the head master, and those to whom he gives keys, can pass from the one school to the other. There is a hall in which the boys of all three schools assemble in the morning to hear

* The buildings were begun in 1840, and the school opened in 1843.

prayers read, but even in this hall different seats are allotted to each school, and at no other time of the day do the boys ever meet. Except in fact that they are under one roof, the schools are as completely separated as if each was a mile from the others. Each is under a departmental head, and has its own full staff of masters. The only link between them is the head-master, who is supreme over all. He is also departmental master of the upper school, and undertakes its highest classical teaching. He appoints and dismisses every master at his pleasure, sees the parents, settles all questions of organization or discipline that may arise, and goes from time to time into the middle and lower schools to superintend the teaching or examine the classes. The control of so vast an establishment involves great labour, labour that would be too heavy for any man, were it not that he is free during the evenings (since he has no boarders to look after), and that Saturday is a whole holiday. As it is, he cannot undertake so much of the direct teaching of the highest classes as devolves on the head-master of great boarding schools like Harrow or Marlborough, or of grammar schools like that of Manchester.* Liverpool College.

The distinction between the three schools of which this complex whole consists is educational as well as social. The course in the upper school, to which there is attached a preparatory department, is classical and mathematical. The fees are from 17 to 22 guineas per annum. The boys leave at from 16 to 18, some three or four proceeding every year to the universities. In the middle school the fee is 11 guineas per annum. Latin is taught to all, but no Greek, and the boys leave about 15 for offices.† The lower school receives a class of pupils not greatly above those who go to the National and British schools, in fact many come from those schools to it. The ordinary subjects of an English education are taught, some little Latin to a few, and to a somewhat larger number the elements of mathematics. Every half year the boy who does best

* At present, as I understand, the head-master teaches regularly in the lower and middle, as well as in the upper school; an excellent arrangement, since it gives him a knowledge of the working of these departments which supervision alone could not enable him to acquire.

† The account given in the text refers to the state of the school in the end of 1865. The present head master, in a letter written to me in reply to certain queries addressed to him respecting changes made in the school within the last two years, informs me that at present Latin is taught to 50 or 60 boys in the lower school, and Greek to 2 or 3 in the middle. The time of school work has been shortened by one hour a week, and the evening lessons slightly diminished in quantity. Covered sheds for play in wet weather have been erected in the playground. The study of chemistry has been extended in the upper school, and is found very popular among the boys. Singing is taught to all boys in the junior (preparatory) department; and an increasing number learn drawing. The head-master's present practice is to devote twelve hours a week of his own time to class-teaching and examining in the upper school, two hours more to what is called the "exceptional division" (for an account of which see Dr. Howson's evidence), four hours to the middle school, and two hours to the lower school. The rest of his time is occupied by interviews with parents and other general school business. He desires to see the system of school scholarships modified in some respects, especially so as to throw them open (or some of them) to boys on their first entering school; speaks of the desirability of having a school chapel, if funds for its erection can be procured; and seems to hope for a revival before long of the collegiate element in the institution by the establishment of courses of lectures on literary and scientific subjects.

Liverpool College.

in the lower school is promoted to the middle, receiving his education there at the rate he previously paid, and one boy from the middle is similarly promoted to the upper.* These boys, I was told, are sufficiently well treated by those of the school to which they are promoted, but otherwise the feeling of social antagonism between the schools is very strong—stronger, of course, between the upper and the middle than it is between the middle and the lower. In so far as there is a real difference between the three (it would be more correct to say, the two) types of education given in the college, in so far there is a fair ground for having three or two different systems of classes. But the extreme rigidity with which the separation of the schools is enforced, the obtrusive prominence given to those social distinctions which it is usually considered becoming to disguise, have no excuse of educational necessity to plead: they were established by the founders, and are maintained by the present governors for the sake of gratifying the exclusive spirit and soothing the sensitive gentility of Liverpool parents. It is some advantage to the lower and middle schools to be close under the head-master's eye, as they are now, but on every other ground it would be far better to remove the upper school elsewhere, and throw the lower and middle schools into one. The head-master might still exercise a general superintendence over all, and the sons of the rich, while still preserved from contamination by the sons of shopkeepers, would be preserved from it in a less offensive way.

Each school has its own staff of masters. Those in the upper school are graduates of Oxford or Cambridge; many of those in the lower are from Government training colleges. All are appointed by the head master. They are paid in the best of all possible manners. Every one has a share, a greater or less share according to the importance of his position, in the profits of the whole institution, and is paid annually more or less, according as the profit increases or diminishes. In 1849 each share was worth about 15*s.* in the pound, in 1865 it stood at 1*l.* 5*s.* In this way every one is directly interested in the prosperity of the institution, and feels himself directly rewarded for the labour he expends. The head master has also been accustomed, whenever a vacancy occurs, which happens frequently among so great a number of masters, to recommend the governing body to increase the share of any master whose zeal or abilities specially commend themselves to him, making the share of the person who is appointed to the vacant place somewhat smaller than that of his predecessor was. Then in course of time if this newly appointed master seems to deserve it, his share may and probably will be raised to what the predecessor's was, or perhaps may be fixed even higher. Thus while the whole number of shares remains the same, that allotted to each mastership can be

* There are also other school scholarships, as well as university exhibitions, an account of both of which will be found in the returns made by the college authorities.

made to vary according to the merits of him who holds it. Such a system requires a very judicious and conciliatory head master to work it, but in Dr. Howson's hands it appears to have worked extremely well, and under the admirable management of the present head-master I do not doubt that it will continue to succeed. Liverpool College.

Of the quality of the instruction given in the Liverpool College, I shall have to speak in a latter part of this report. Having been frequently present while the classes were going on, and listened to the teaching, I believe it to be in the main sound and good, while some parts of it are remarkably good. Its weak point, like that of so many otherwise excellent schools, lies in the masters of the junior classes, some of whom want that spirit and force of mind which are needed to make a man a good teacher, and have neither the experience nor the strength of character which make it easy to maintain a firm yet gentle discipline. The remedy is to be sought partly in raising the salaries, a good many of which are now below 100*l.* a year (of course without either board or lodging), partly in the provision of a better and higher education for persons of the middle class who intend to become teachers than they can now obtain. At present there is nothing* between the Government training colleges—places with a plebeian character, and which produce teachers of a certain mechanical skill, but usually† devoid of cultivation and of intellectual interests—on the one hand, and the old universities on the other, whose cost puts them out of the reach of nineteen Englishmen out of twenty. It appeared to me that there were certain changes which might with advantage be made in the organization of the college, but a discussion of these would involve details for which there is no space here. The constitution may appear somewhat too elaborate, but it seems to work very well; and offensive as is the way in which the boys of three different social classes are brought together, yet kept apart—taught to imbibe in youth those very feelings of social antagonism which it is the object of the statesman, the moralist, and the minister of religion to extirpate, there is no doubt that Liverpool people are well satisfied with a system under which the sons of the rich mix with none but their equals.‡ For this reason it would be better to leave the middle and lower schools in their present site, organizing them as one, and to place the upper school in some other part of the town, or in some suburb where it will be more easily accessible to the boys who use it, most of whom live in the outskirts of the town.

No town of importance in the north of England wants its mechanic's institute, but no mechanic's institute has attained such wealth and prosperity as that at Liverpool. It is a complex affair, including, besides the day schools to be spoken of here, an institution The Liverpool Institute Schools.

* Universities which, like that of London, give degrees by examination alone, are not strictly speaking teaching bodies. The same remark applies to some extent to Dublin also.

† There are, of course, some few notable exceptions.

‡ An eminent clergyman, on my asking him whether he did not think the system of the three schools in the college objectionable, replied, "No; it seems to me a "proper recognition of those social distinctions which Christianity was meant to "establish."

called Queen's College, affiliated to the University of London, a reading room, a library, a girls' school, and a system of evening classes. Like its congeners in other towns, it is managed by a board of directors, elected by the subscribers and life members. These directors appoint committees for the different branches of the institution; it is to the day school committee, therefore, that the oversight and control of the Institute schools practically belongs. As the buildings have been set apart for certain public objects, and as no person (other than the masters) derives any pecuniary benefit from the success of the school, it is not, in the common sense of the word, proprietary. No dividend is ever declared; the surplus of the fees paid by the scholars goes, after defraying the school expenses, to the general funds of the institution.

The boys' day schools.

The day schools, of which alone I have to speak, and of which I may speak the more shortly as they have been described to you in the evidence of the late head master, and as they will be described in the sixth chapter of this Report, which deals with the state of education in Liverpool, are two in number, the high school and the commercial school. Both are under the charge of the same head-master, are held in the same building, and approached by the same entrance; otherwise they are distinct, each having its own school-rooms, its own staff of masters (although one or two masters teach in both), its own playground.* There is, however, no such effort made as at the College to keep the two sets of boys from mingling with one another, nor is the line of social demarcation between them by any means so sharp, the high school of the Institute being less specifically genteel than the upper school of the College. The high school is classical, Latin being taught throughout and Greek to all who do not learn German (at present to about one-ninth of the whole number). Its fees range from 6*l.* (in the preparatory section) to 16*l.* The commercial school charges from 3*l.* 10*s.* to 4*l.* 4*s.* per annum (Latin and French are each 1*l.* 10*s.* extra). It teaches the ordinary English subjects, together with mathematics, in the four highest and chemistry in the six highest classes. In the latter of these branches the schools have acquired a high reputation from the success of their pupils in the university local examinations; the late head-master, however, intimated to me that he doubted whether the time spent on it would not have been as well spent on Latin. A fundamental rule of the institution forbids any religious instruction of a sectarian or dogmatic kind to be given, and at present no religious instruction of any kind is given in either school. I was told that some parents were unwilling on this account to send their children, but as there are already rather more than 900 boys in attendance, a number quite as great as one head master can overlook, and greater than the present building can well accommodate, this cannot be thought to have affected the prosperity of the establishment. In fact the success of so purely secular a school points either to an

* The playgrounds are far too small for the number of boys, and there is no gymnasium nor other provision for physical education. This is a serious defect.

indifference on the part of parents to religious instruction, or to a feeling that religious instruction is better given at home or in the Sunday school. Liverpool Institute day schools.

In the first years of their existence, the Institute schools differed much more widely than they do now from other day schools elsewhere. Some one in Liverpool remarked to me, "The Institute "was meant to be a place of modern education, and it now teaches "classics to the whole of its upper school; its discipline was to be "maintained without corporal punishment, and the cane is now in "regular use; it was to be purely secular, and its late and present "head-masters are clergymen of the Church of England." These deviations from the original plan, if they have not caused (some think they have) the success of the school, have at any rate not obstructed it. Owing partly to the extremely low fees of the commercial school, partly to the prestige which attaches to an institution on a great scale, partly to the active and judicious management of its late head-master, the Rev. Joshua Jones, the numbers of the school are now equal to those of the College, and greater than those of any other day school in Great Britain. Except as regards its less classical and its distinctly secular character, there is now very little in the internal economy of the school calling for special remark. The classes are of course large, perhaps too large, and composed of boys, many of whom remain but a short time, hence the labour of teaching is serious, and the teacher can of course have comparatively little personal knowledge of his pupils. The fatigue entailed on the head master by the immense size of the school makes it impossible for him to do much in the way of direct teaching; his business rather is to choose good under-masters, keep his team well together, receive the visits and answer the innumerable letters of parents. Of these three functions the first is much the least satisfactory. The fees are very low; the income available for payment of the teachers is therefore too small to make it possible to offer proper salaries. It is true that the school pays no rent, but then a considerable part of its income, not less than what would pay rent and other necessary outgoings, is taken from it and devoted to the support of the institution generally. Thus very few indeed of the masters receive more than 200*l.* a year, and a great many receive less than 100*l.*, many as little as 30*l.* or 40*l.*, some as little as 15*l.* or 20*l.** Hence there are very few men among the teachers who have passed through a university, and few from any place of education who have been educated highly and possess marked ability. The majority are young and often inexperienced men who have been pupil-teachers in Privy Council schools, or who having designed themselves for business have not succeeded in finding a situation in an office or a warehouse. Hence neither the discipline nor the instruction of many parts of the

* Since the above, which refers to the state of the school in 1865, was written, I have been informed by the present head-master (under whose active management the school maintains its numbers and efficiency) that no under-master now receives less than 50*l.* This increase has, however, been gained by diminishing the salaries of the upper masters, which were already too small.

Liverpool Institute day schools.

school is satisfactory. Good teaching cannot by any device be got out of inferior instruments. The defect is not to be charged on the head master, who has no power over the funds, and it naturally escapes the notice of the directors, who see only that the school keeps up its numbers and stands very high in the university local examination lists. It will be difficult to remedy it without greatly raising the salaries, and by consequence either raising the fees also or spending all the income derived from the school upon the school alone. At present neither the Institute nor the College can be cited as an instance to prove that a self-supporting school can give a sound plain education (*i.e.*, an education which is to cease at 15) at a charge lower than 6*l.* per annum.

The Institute school possesses one exhibition tenable at any university, and it has of late years begun to send pupils up to Oxford and Cambridge, some of whom have obtained open scholarships there. This was probably not contemplated by its founders, but it is in every way an advantage, since it raises the name and credit of the institution, and opens up a career for boys of merit. This object is further promoted by an arrangement according to which the two best boys of the commercial school are annually promoted to the high school, paying only the commercial school fees.

The relation of the head-master to the day school committee, and through them to the directors, is in theory one of much less independence than is the case in the College. The head-master of the Institute cannot dismiss, he can only suspend, a delinquent boy or an unsatisfactory master; he is required to report every case of corporal punishment, and the assistant masters are not personally appointed by him, but by the directors from among candidates recommended by him. It would probably be wiser to give the head-master a freer discretion; but in practice a man of tact can generally manage to have things ordered as he thinks best.

Liverpool Institute Girls' School.

The girls' school of the Institute is in a separate building, which stands at a distance of 150 or 200 yards from the boys' school, and is rented for the purpose. It is managed by a distinct committee of the general board of directors, who appoint the assistant teachers, and are supreme over the internal concerns of the school, acting of course in conjunction with the head mistress or principal, to whom matters of detail are usually entrusted. The girls who resort to it are in the same social position as (being often the sisters of) the boys who are to be found in the high and commercial schools. The bulk are daughters of clerks and shopkeepers, with an admixture of those of professional men and mechanics. The fees are 5*l.* 12*s.* per annum (daughters of members 5*l.* 2*s.*).* The education is of a plain and solid, rather than of an ornamental description; in point of quality it is much better than is to be found in most girls' schools, and in some subjects, among which I may particularize arithmetic, it attains high excellence. French is learnt by about 12 per cent. of the total number of pupils; German by 3 per cent.; instrumental

* Instrumental music (6*l.* 6*s.* per annum), French (2*l.* 10*s.*), dancing (2*l.* 2*s.*), and callisthenics (1*l.*) are extras.

music by 14 per cent.; drawing by 80 per cent. As in the Institute boys' school, no religious instruction of any kind is given. No prizes are offered, nor are any punishments, except the loss of good marks and privileges, inflicted; girls, however, who seem likely to do mischief to their companions, or prove obdurate to advice, are from time to time removed.

Almost all the teaching of the ordinary branches, as well as that of foreign languages and drawing, is done by ladies, of whom there are 13 (besides the principal), receiving salaries varying from 100*l.* to 20*l.* One visiting master comes for two hours daily, to teach English to the more advanced classes, and another gives lessons on chemistry and physics once a week. Both are very good teachers. Besides these there are masters for music, dancing, and callisthenics, all of them extras, and there are usually a certain number of apprentices or normal teachers who take part of the work in the junior classes. It is to be regretted that the regular teachers should be so poorly remunerated, eight of them receiving stipends of from 50*l.* to 20*l.*, but since women are content with smaller salaries than men receive, and since the goodness of a female teacher is not so directly related to the amount of salary offered as it is among men (the market for educated labour being more restricted in the former case than in the latter), the results upon the girls' school of this inadequate payment are perhaps less serious than they seem to be upon the boys' school. For a good many years past the school has maintained its number of pupils at 300, and might, no doubt, greatly exceed this limit if it were thought desirable to do so. 300, however, is a sufficient number to fill the existing rooms and to permit of a complete organization by classes, and the head mistress thinks that it might prove difficult to administer with success a much larger establishment. The school deserves to be remembered as an instance of a victory over the prejudice common among parents against sending girls to a place where they must mix with a great number of companions, and it may be in some respects held up as a model for imitation in other cities, where for want of such an institution, girls who do not belong to the wealthier class are left to pick up a meagre education at ill-taught private schools.

The Royal Institution in Liverpool.

The Royal Institution was founded a good many years ago for the purpose of promoting literary and scientific tastes among the inhabitants of Liverpool. Its buildings stand near the centre of the town, and include a museum, a library, and rooms in which courses of lectures are occasionally delivered and where a scientific society meets. The day school, although an integral part of the institution, has practically very little to do with the other parts. The Committee appoint a head-master when a vacancy occurs, and the scale of fees is fixed by their authority, otherwise they do not interfere, and the head-master is left to appoint and dismiss all the under masters, and to regulate the instruction and discipline at his pleasure.

At present the scholars number 90 or 100, some 30 or 40 of whom board with the head or with the second master, the rest being sons of Liverpool merchants and professional men, well-to-do

people, since the fees are 21*l.* a year for subscribing members of the institution; 26*l.* 5*s.* for others. Under the energetic administration of the present head-master, the school has for a number of years maintained itself in a flourishing state, and acquired as well by the performances of some of its more ambitious pupils at the universities as by the general efficiency of the teaching, shown in the case of those boys also who enter business or professions, a reputation which I believe to be thoroughly well deserved. The head-master pays a merely nominal rent for the use of the buildings during the day; but otherwise the school is self-supporting, all the salaries being defrayed out of the fees. No dividend is paid, and thus although the subscribers are so far benefited that their sons are admitted at a charge of 5*l.* 5*s.* less than other pupils, the school can hardly be called proprietary.

The school frigate Conway.

A professional school of a somewhat peculiar nature is maintained on board H.M.S. Conway, by the Liverpool Mercantile Marine Service Association (incorporated by Act of Parliament.) Struck by the want of scientific knowledge among the captains and mates of merchant vessels, this society obtained an old man-of-war from Government, had her moored in the Mersey off Rockferry, near Birkenhead, and established this school, in which instruction is given in nautical astronomy, the theory of navigation, and practical seamanship, as well as in mathematics, French, and the ordinary branches of an English education. The charge for education, board, and uniform is 50*l.* a year; boys enter at from 12 to 15, and the regular course extends over two years. When the course has been completed to the satisfaction of the commander, a certificate is given to the boy, which, under a special order of the Board of Trade, enables him to pass as an officer one year earlier than he could otherwise do, that is to say, after three instead of four years spent at sea. When he leaves the ship, the members of the committee take him into one of their own ships, or endeavour to procure a place for him in a ship whose owners are known to them, and as the demand for educated apprentices in merchant vessels is very large, they have no difficulty in doing so.

The school is not yet self-supporting, so that a certain sum, raised by subscriptions, is every year assigned to it by the association: its financial position, has, however, been improving, and the debt incurred at starting is now nearly cleared off. I visited the frigate, saw the school at work, and had the pleasure of conversing with the commander and several members of the committee of management. The arrangements struck me as good, the boys are well cared for, and the discipline, which is necessarily somewhat stricter than that of an ordinary boarding school, seems to be maintained with much judgment and tact. The technical branches of instruction are of course the most important, and are those in which it is found most easy to excite the diligence of the boys, who have usually slender literary tastes, and whose English education is assumed to have been well advanced before they come on board. Something, however, might with advantage be

done to give them tastes for those branches of science with which their future life will, or ought to, connect them—physical geography, mechanical philosophy, and meteorology. Hitherto the institution has not received from Liverpool shipowners all the support it has a right to expect; and from the merchant-captains of the old school it has met with a certain measure of opposition. Some of these rough old salts, as I was told, when they get a Conway boy on board their ship, call him a "cabin-window gentleman," and set him to clean out a pigstye, by way of taking the pride out of him. In course of time, however, and especially when Conway boys have themselves grown up and become captains, there will be less to complain of in this respect. And there is already a very general feeling in Liverpool of the advantages of such a place of systematic professional education, and of the services it has begun to render in the way of increasing the skill and scientific knowledge, as well as raising the moral and social tone of so important a class as the officers of the mercantile marine.

Schools belonging to congregations.

There are several other schools in the county neither endowed nor private, but of which, since they are severally of little mark, a detailed description need not be given. Among these are the congregational schools, two of which I visited, one in Manchester and the other in Liverpool. In both cases, the school-rooms belong to a congregation of Protestant Nonconformists, and adjoin their place of worship. Each seems to have been originally established for the benefit of the poorer members of the congregation, and of the humbler class generally. Each, however, has now become more or less of what is called a "middle-class school," the children in attendance being chiefly those of clerks, small shopkeepers, and so forth. In each a minority only, and not a large minority, belong to the congregation owning the school, or even to the Nonconformist denomination itself. Neither school receives any grant from the congregational funds, and the committee chosen from the congregation, to which the oversight of the school would belong, contents itself with appointing the master and mistress, and then leaves them to charge what fees and teach what subjects they please. These fees were in the one case 15*s.* in the upper school, and 8*d.*, 6*d.*, and 4*d.*, per week in the lower, in the other from 1*l.* 12*s.* to 4*l.* 4*s.* per annum. In this latter school about five-twelfths were receiving a superior sort of education—grammar, geography, history, and so forth, with Latin to about 10 per cent. (of the whole number); the other seven-twelfths were having an elementary education, much like that of the Government schools. The teaching seemed to me energetic and sensible, and the school itself a benefit to the neighbourhood.

Schools founded by societies.

Not dissimilar in their constitution are two schools connected with Church of England societies, but virtually the property of the master. One of these stands in Manchester, and was founded some years ago by a body called the Manchester Church Education Society. It is now left entirely to the head master, who appoints the assistant teachers, directs the instruction, and

receives the fees for himself. The neighbouring streets are inhabited chiefly by clerks and small shopkeepers, and the school seems to be liked by them, and useful to them. There are between two and three hundred pupils. The other is in Bolton; it has sprung out of a sort of literary and scientific institution called the Church Institute, and has latterly, after a series of vicissitudes, been raised by the energy of the present head-master into a state of comparative prosperity. Both the management and the profits are left in his hands. It happens, curiously enough, that just as the Nonconformist congregational schools (mentioned above) receive abundance of children belonging to the Church of England, and teach no dogma to them, so this school, founded as a purely Anglican place of education, does not teach the Church catechism to Nonconformists, while the Bolton grammar school, hard by, founded in the days of the Commonwealth, enforces the Church catechism on all scholars, thereby excluding Roman Catholics and a number of Protestant Dissenters.

The convent schools for girls.

There remains one other class of schools of which, as somewhat peculiar, it may be proper to speak a little more at length. These are the schools attached to convents. I visited four of them in Lancashire, three for boarders* and one for day scholars, and was received by the Ladies Superior with a courtesy and kindness which it would be unbecoming not to acknowledge in the amplest manner. The results of the teaching, as tested in three of the schools by examination, seemed to me satisfactory. Some of the text-books used, especially those bearing on history, were not the best; and there was, perhaps—at least in one of the three schools—the same tendency to cultivate accomplishments to the detriment of solid studies as one discovers in other schools for girls. Nevertheless, much of the teaching struck me as being both careful and intelligent; English grammar, for instance, was respectable in all three schools, arithmetic received more attention than is usually given to it, and the reading aloud deserved great praise for its grace and clearness. As the schools belonged to three different religious orders, and were not designed for quite the same social class—the boarding schools receiving girls who appeared to belong rather to the higher section of the middle class—professional men and merchants, while the day school was used by the children of shopkeepers—there was some difference between their respective internal arrangements. All, however, had certain notable features in common to distinguish them from Protestant seminaries.

(1.) In each case the school was the property of the community, and taught by its members exclusively. Of course no salary is paid to the teachers; nor is it, so far as I understand, the object of the community to make a profit out of the scholars. A convent has peculiar facilities for taking boarders, since its domestic establishment exists already, and nothing more is needed than to provide some additional bedrooms. And being intimately con-

* In one or two of these a few day scholars were also received.

nected with the ecclesiastical authorities of the Roman Catholic church, it comes before Roman Catholic parents with a sort of official guarantee.

(2.) The internal organization of a community can in some respects be turned to very good account for the purposes of education. The authority of the Superior being unquestioned, the most perfect subordination and unity of system can be easily attained; and from the whole number of sisters those who are best qualified either by knowledge or by talent to become successful teachers, can be chosen out and placed in the school, while other members discharge other duties. And if there be any teacher whose capacity is very marked, she has an excellent opportunity of training the novices for their work, of instructing them, of showing them how to teach and how to govern a class.

(3.) A religious order is an international institution. One finds in English convents sisters who are natives of France, Germany, or Belgium, and others who being English by birth have been summoned abroad for a time. and allowed to return again when they had mastered French or German. Hence the convents have no difficulty in providing competent teachers of modern languages, and sometimes introduce methods or devices known to and approved by the experience of foreign schools.

(4.) Religion enables the teachers to lay a surprisingly strong hold upon the thoughts and wills of the children placed under their charge. Not that they are made ascetics; on the contrary, amusement seems to be provided quite as freely as in Protestant schools, sometimes more freely. But by means of the frequent services, by the presentation of religious images and pictures, by confession, by many other customs which need not be described, religion is so inwoven with the life of each girl, that she becomes sometimes perhaps a hypocrite, but far more frequently a willing and almost passive instrument in the hands of those who guide her. Whether this is or is not desirable, whether a girl's character and opinions ought not to have more independence than they can have under such a system is not a question to be discussed here. As the Roman Catholic ideal of female character differs from the Protestant, so the theory of education, as well in the convent schools as in Stonyhurst, has something distinctively its own; it aims at giving a certain definite amount of knowledge and producing a definite state of feeling and belief; it does not aim at making the mind free, eager, receptive. This limitation made, it may be remarked that the convent schools, as they enjoy great advantages, seem to know how to use them; their teaching, especially of music and modern languages, is usually careful and often good; their pupils appear to be happy, nor does one experience on entering them any of that feeling of gloom which in England we commonly associate with the notion of a monastic life.

CHAPTER IV.

Instruction and Discipline.

Under this head it will be proper, leaving out of view particular schools or classes of schools, to describe briefly the general character of the education which I found given in Lancashire. Going in succession through the most usual branches of instruction, I shall endeavour to state what methods were employed in conveying knowledge, and what, as tested by oral and written examination, was the result on the mind of the learner.

(A.)—General View of the Instruction given.

Three types of school curriculum.

The extent to which each several subject is taught will be best understood by referring, for the endowed schools, to the Tables printed in another part of this Report, and for the private schools to the Tables given at p. 544 *et seq.* of this volume, where some 12 schools are selected as typical. From these some idea may be formed of the number of schools that teach each subject, the number of boys that learn it, and the quantity of time devoted to it. I may add here what these tables show in detail, that there are three types (so to speak) of education in Lancashire, three species of curriculum, including the following subjects respectively. I put the subjects in the order in which they would commonly follow each other.

(α) Highest.

(α) Reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, English grammar (omitted in some of the classical schools), geography, English history, Latin (introduced along with the three subjects last preceding), French, Greek, mathematics, usually drawing, and possibly some branch of natural science.

(β) Intermediate.

(β) Reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, English grammar, English history, book-keeping, elementary algebra, mensuration, and possibly a little Latin or French.

(γ) Lowest.

(γ) Reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, a very little English grammar, and a historical reading book.

Of these three curricula the last, not much more comprehensive than that of the Government schools under the Revised Code, is to be found in the worst of the endowed and the cheapest of the private schools. The second is that of the average commercial schools. The first is that of the highest schools, endowed and proprietary, as well as of some twelve or fifteen private schools.

Per-centage of boys receiving each sort of education.

It would have been important to ascertain what per-centage of boys, not of the labouring class, receive each of the above kinds of education. The statistics in my possession are not complete enough to warrant any positive statement; but of those commonly called the middle classes it seems probable that about 7 per cent. of those not in Government schools pass through curriculum (α); 40 per cent. through curriculum (β); and 53 per cent. through curriculum (γ).

In Lancashire a large proportion of the persons above the rank of labourers, possibly some 20 or 25 per cent. of the whole number,

receive the whole or a part of their education in Government schools. To this subject it will be necessary to revert.

The average age at which the first of these classes leave school is from 16 to 17; that of the second 14 to 15; that of the third $12\frac{1}{2}$ to $13\frac{1}{2}$.

Schoolmasters agree in representing the years from 14 onwards as by far the most valuable for a boy's progress. His volatility, they say, subsides, and he begins to take an intelligent and conscious interest in what he is taught. But the great majority of Lancashire boys do not remain long enough after 14 to enable their teachers to improve these brighter hours. Such faults, therefore, as may have to be remarked in the instruction given in these schools must not be laid solely or even chiefly to the charge of the teachers; they are rather due to the apathy or poverty of parents who send boys to school too late and remove them too soon; and to the want of a proper training in the earlier years of life.

Limited range of the education given in most Lancashire schools.

The education which the statement above given represents cannot be accused of being too comprehensive or of aiming too high. It is meagre at the best in its quantity. Its quality may most properly be described by going through each of the subjects taught, beginning with the more elementary.

(B.)—Subjects of Instruction.

I.—*Reading.*

English reading.

There were two cases in which it seemed proper to examine children in reading. First, in small schools, especially country endowed schools, to ascertain whether they reached the standard of the Government schools, and gave the children practice enough to enable them to retain the power of reading with ease through the rest of their life. It was of course only in the very worst schools that children over eight were found incapable of an easy sentence. But there was a great deal of stumbling and bungling, and very often ordinary passages were read in a loud dissonant yell, which made it difficult to follow the sense. There seemed reason for believing that many country schools would be improved by the introduction of the Government methods.

General neglect of the art of reading aloud.

Secondly. In schools of a higher order it was desirable to make boys, sometimes even the elder boys, read aloud, to see how far they had been taught to do it with grace and clearness. These qualities are not often found. Many schools do not recognize reading as an art, although it is nowhere more necessary than where, as in Lancashire, there is a strong local accent to be overcome. It is a common practice to read aloud from the history book, whatever that may be, and so to seem to teach both history and reading at once. On this plan neither is really taught, for the slipshod style and flat monotony of the compilations in use prevent them from affording sufficient variety of intonations to give scope for training the voice; while history read in such fashion cannot possibly be remembered. It would be better to use as reading books only such as are especially designed for being read aloud.

There are of course a great many such "elocution books" in existence, though some teachers said they could find none to their mind.

In few schools is there any habitual endeavour to see whether the pupil understands what he reads. Unintelligent reading is of course listless and inexpressive; and teaching which should bring the learner's mind into play upon the substance of the piece read could not fail to improve his elocution.

It is worth remarking how distinct is the superiority of girls' reading to that of boys' in every respect. They learn to read more quickly: they read more correctly and clearly: they read with infinitely more feeling and variety of tone.

II.—*Spelling.*

Spelling.

Spelling usually goes hand in hand with reading for the first few years, until the pupil can write with tolerable ease. It is then, in all the better schools, taught chiefly by dictation; a few only of the country endowed schools and the cheap private schools keep to the old plan of learning off and repeating aloud the columns of a spelling-book. It is one of the subjects which masters find most difficult and troublesome; and though the use of a good dictation book greatly abridges the time spent, there are some boys, and those not always the most stupid, who seem unable to master it. It ought, of course, to be greatly easier to boys who have received a classical training than to others, yet I did not find in them any marked superiority.*

I examined in spelling almost all the schools visited, generally by dictating a passage to be written down on paper, or by younger boys on a slate. The general result was unsatisfactory. 12 per cent. were marked good; 25 per cent. tolerable; 33 per cent. poor; and 30 per cent. bad.

III.—*Writing.*

Writing.

Writing is a subject of the first importance in Lancashire, and there are many schools which rest their claim to greatness upon it alone. Consequently I inspected the copy-books almost everywhere, and dictated a piece of English to be written down on the spot by the boys. The superiority of the copy-book hand was generally decided, and led to the conclusion that facility and readiness are too little cultivated; masters thinking rather of what looks well in the copy-book to be sent home to the parent, than of what the boy will have to do when he goes into a shop or an office. Except in this respect, the writing seemed in most instances satisfactory, in some few remarkably good. It is supposed to

* I remember to have seen it stated somewhere that bad spelling is on the increase owing to the decline of classical studies, and the practice of writing the word "separate" with an *e*, "seperate," was taken as an instance of a common blunder which a classical scholar could not commit, and which ladies constantly do commit. It so happens, however, that there is no word more frequently mis-spelt in their examination papers by undergraduates at Oxford, who have all received a classical education.

be worse in the grammar than in the private (and *par excellence* commercial) schools; but I confess myself unable to detect any serious difference. Respecting the mode of teaching writing, I found two controversies carried on—the one whether fixed copy lines (lithographed in the book at the top of the page) are to be preferred to moveable ones; the other whether a copy line written by the master on the black-board may not be better than either. The advantages of this last method are said to be that it enables a whole class to be taught the same thing at once, allows the master to concentrate his attention, and gives him a means of directing his teaching towards any special faults he may observe in the writing of the class. The arguments on the question of fixed *versus* moveable lines need hardly be repeated here; a master whose own penmanship is inferior will wisely prefer the former. Parents of the richer classes often complain of the deterioration in their son's handwriting when he has got to the top of the school, and has to write Latin, or it may be Greek, exercises, and take notes hurriedly of what the master tells him. To counteract the bad effect of these practices, it might be well to give such boys, even of sixteen and upwards, one or two hours in the week of regular copy-book writing. This plan is followed in some schools with the best results. It need hardly be remarked that nothing ruins the hand so swiftly and surely as the practice of writing impositions.

Fixed *v.* moveable lines *v.* the black-board.

IV.—*Arithmetic.*

Arithmetic may be held the most important of all the subjects taught in the class of schools to which your attention is directed. It is not only the one of greatest practical value in commercial life; it is the first and sometimes the only one through which any thorough mental training can be given to the learner. I made a point, therefore, of setting questions in it in every endowed school which I visited, and in as many as possible of the private schools. In one or two of the largest proprietary schools, such as the College and the Institute in Liverpool, whose size put a satisfactory examination out of the question, I observed the classes while the teaching was going on, and inquired the nature of the methods employed. There are three ways in which arithmetic is taught in the Lancashire schools. In many of the smaller and cheaper schools—endowed and private—the boy is set down with his slate before him and his book beside him, to do sums for an hour or so. He copies the sum down from the book and proceeds to work it, occasionally looking at the answer to see if he seems to be going right. It need not be said that the process is a leisurely one. If his answer agrees with that in the book he goes on to another, perhaps after a few minutes spent in sketching horses and dogs upon the slate. If his answer is wrong, he tries the sum again, and at last goes up to the teacher to be shown how to do it.

Arithmetic.

Three different methods of teaching it.

2. In other schools of the same class, and in some larger and more expensive ones which ought to know better, the plan is

slightly different. The master dictates a sum from the book, or writes it on the black-board: the boy or boys take it down and work it. When it is finished they bring it to the teacher, who has been teaching another class meanwhile; he looks at the answer in the printed key, or it may be in some private answer-book of his own; sets them another if they are right, sends them back to do it over again if they are wrong. The one advantage of this method over that last described is that as the boys have not the answer before them they cannot, consciously or unconsciously, work towards it.

3. In a few of the best private schools, as well as in the great proprietary schools, and some five or six of the best grammar schools, an arithmetic class is managed like any other class. The master gives out a sum or writes it on the black-board; watches the boys while they do it; hears them read out their answers; marks those who are right or make them mark themselves; and then goes on to another. If he is a good teacher he also gives oral explanations of new or difficult rules, and questions the boys on the meaning of the processes they go through. In one or two instances also, but in not more than one or two, I found a system of marking and writing prevail which gave an advantage to quickness, as well as to correctness.

Evils of the two former methods.

It would be unnecessary to say a word respecting the two former methods of teaching if they were not unhappily still so common. The evils which I found flowing from them, though in a greater degree from the first than from the second, were the following:—They waste time, since there is no pressure on the boy to get on fast; they do not train him to work quickly; they produce in him a dull and listless habit of mind. As there is nothing into which boys throw themselves with more ardour than the working of sums when they work in a body and against one another, so there is nothing more tedious than plodding through a sum by one's self. They offer great facilities for copying, more especially if several boys are at the same sum at once. The master, whose attention is directed to another class cannot check them, and one smart boy does all the work for his companions.

They do not require the boy to exercise his mind on the question, or understand the reason of what he does. When he works from the book, he looks merely to the example and the rule, and tries to follow them in a slavish fashion. If the teacher dictates from the book, the case is not quite so bad. But the teacher, having his mind otherwise engaged, seldom looks to see whether the boy is working intelligently.

Arithmetic commonly taught in an unintelligent manner.

Not regarded as a science.

This is indeed the capital fault in the teaching of arithmetic, a fault with which all but a few of the best schools must be charged. Arithmetic is taught too much as an art and too little as a science. Even regarded as an art, its principles are not explained: it is not thought of as a body of principles, but as a string of rules in a book. When one asks how far the boys in a certain class have gone, the teacher answers, "Let me see, boys, where have you got to? Ah, yes, I see; they left off last week at the 74th page of Colenso or Barnard Smith" (as the case may be)

A boy in such a school, when a question is set him by an examiner, comes up with his slate, "Please, sir, what rule am I to do it by?" and when told to do it by any rule he pleases, so that he does it right, goes back to his seat confounded. Oral examination on the nature of arithmetical processes disclosed, even in advanced boys, a surprising ignorance of the principles which they had been taught to use. Like the Pythagoreans, they attached a mystic meaning to numbers; they had never thought of them as the relations of actual things, objects of sense, and while they gave the rule pat off were puzzled when some concrete application of it, however simple, was put before them. For instance, boys who had gone a long way in fractions, and described correctly all that must be done in adding fractions together, were at sea when asked how they would ascertain the proportion to a whole orange of the half of one orange and one piece of another orange which had been cut into three pieces. Similarly, younger children who subtracted correctly had no idea of the nature of the process of transference by which this operation is performed. It was plain enough that in each case the boys had been left to stumble through the text-book and make the most of such explanations as it gave. The teacher had neither expounded each new rule as they came to it, nor given them searching questions on it, nor returned upon it after an interval to ascertain that it had not been forgotten.

Its value as a means of mental discipline overlooked.

One reason of this negligence and unskilfulness in the teaching of arithmetic seems to be, strangely enough, its practical importance. Schoolmasters are so accustomed to regard it as a thing to be taught for commercial life, as a series of questions in pounds shillings and pence, yards of calico and hogsheads of sugar, that they forget that it is primarily a science and ignore its value as a means of exciting and training the intelligence. Their hurry to be practical defeats itself: the boys would make greater progress if they were worked longer and more carefully in questions dealing with and bringing out in their fulness the principles of the rules. The commercial applications of a rule would often be better understood, and consequently better used, if they were not the first thing put before the learner. Another cause is perhaps to be sought in the misplaced contempt which has been felt, especially in grammar schools and by university men, for the teaching of arithmetic. They seem to have thought it a vulgar affair, fit only for commercial schools, and which it may safely be left to the writing master to teach. Or even if they do teach it themselves, they are apt to bestow little pains on it: they do not set themselves to consider in what way it can be made most profitable to the learner as an intellectual exercise. This, however, is not so much the case in the grammar schools now as it was 20 years ago. Mental arithmetic is made a conspicuous branch in some schools, occasionally, it is to be feared, rather with a view to showing off in a public examination than to the real benefit of the scholars. Several judicious schoolmasters led me to believe that it is sometimes carried too far. Used in moderation no one can doubt its

Surprising neglect of arithmetic by University men.

Mental arithmetic.

value, not only for practical purposes, but as giving the power of concentrated attention apart from written symbols.

Results of examination of schools in arithmetic.

The result obtained by a scrutiny of the papers done in arithmetic by the schools examined coincide generally with those which oral questioning and observation of the process of teaching enabled me to reach. Of the total number of schools examined, 20 per cent. might be pronounced good; 50 per cent. passable; and the remainder poor or bad. Of the boys who had done papers, the per-centage was very nearly the same: there was a tolerably good general average, with an absence, except in some few instances, of really swift and neat work. The faults which chiefly characterized the paper work were these.

Characteristic defects observed in the teaching.

Slowness.

(1.) The work seemed to be done slowly, generally far too slowly for the exigencies of a merchant's office. Comparatively few boys set briskly to the sums as soon as they were placed before them: the majority looked at them stupidly for awhile before taking their meaning, and when they got to work went on plodding and got but very few done in the allotted time. Examination in this form—the being required to bring their knowledge to bear at a moment's notice—was evidently strange to them. It would have been desirable both to familiarize them with it, and to impress more upon them at all times the value for commercial life of smart, quick, and ready work. A great deal of course depends on a natural gift for numbers, but even those who have little aptitude this way can always, by cultivating the habit of steady attention, be brought to get through their work with creditable speed.

Ignorance of short methods.

(2.) The methods employed are often clumsy and roundabout. Either from want of time or from want of knowledge, there are but few teachers who explain and practice their pupils in short ways of doing questions, and those manifold devices for abridging the labour of calculation which are found so useful in the counting-house. Often the clumsiness of the process adopted points to a want of thought in the boy, which reflects back on a want of intelligence in the teaching.*

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* I may illustrate these remarks by a few instances taken from the answers given in the examination papers.

Questions in simple and compound proportion are in almost every case worked in an unintelligent, clumsy way, without the use of any artifice for shortening the calculation, such as alternating the terms, dividing the third term by the first and multiplying the quotient by the second, or cancelling factors common to the terms of a ratio. Terms are reduced to pence or farthings when reduction to shillings, sixpences, or halfpence would do as well, and so on. Questions in what is sometimes called inverse proportion are generally misapprehended, and worked as if the ratios were direct. In multiplying and dividing fractions, "cancelling factors above and below," which so much shortens the operation, is seldom thought of; and the answer is very often left unreduced. In Practice questions the method of aliquot parts is rarely employed; they are worked by compound multiplication, thus greatly lengthening the process, and increasing tenfold the chance of error; while a price containing halfpence is almost invariably reduced to farthings. Any well-trained pupil would find the price of 1 cwt. at $4\frac{1}{2}d.$ per lb. by repeating $9s.$ $4d.$ four-and a-half times; on the papers worked, almost without exception, 112 is multiplied by 18, and the product divided by 12 and by 20. Similarly, in simple interest, no use is made of abbreviations by means of 5 per cent., or by taking the product of the rate, and time

(3.) In each paper of questions given, there were along with three or four tolerably straightforward questions, requiring nothing more than a knowledge of the ordinary rules and accurate working, one or two others not difficult to an intelligent boy, but calling for a moment's thought, to see how they should be stated and handled. It was noticeable with how much care boys generally avoided these questions. They preferred to go through the longer and more tedious work of one of the commonplace sums, rather than exert their intelligence to even a slight extent in grasping the meaning of such a question, and considering how it should be stated and dealt with. This seemed to point to a neglect on the part of many teachers to provide sufficient variety in their examples. Or it may be that in using text-books which give a profusion of diversified examples, they help the pupil or show him how to do any question which is a little out of the way, instead of making him understand the principle and then leaving him to discover for himself how to apply it. Whatever the cause the result is unfortunate, for a valuable means of developing ingenuity and clearness of mind is lost. And in commercial life questions often present themselves which a mere familiarity with the rules, without an intelligent command of principles, will be unable to grapple with.

Want of power to grasp meaning of questions.

(4.) In five schools out of six numeration and notation are neglected. Boys may frequently be found who work quite correctly a sum in compound addition written up for them on the black-board which they cannot take down from dictation. Others who have advanced into proportion and practice cannot write down 1,020,023 without fatal errors. Nor do teachers seem to feel how vital a thorough comprehension of the principles of notation is to the understanding of all arithmetical operations; they often speak of mistakes in the writing of figures, as they would of mistakes in spelling, as showing inadvertence or forgetfulness, but nothing more.

Neglect of numeration and notation.

(in years), and so of other rules. It may indeed be said, in defence of these roundabout methods, that they are according to the rules, give the pupil exercise on the tables, and establish in his mind the full process by which many questions must be worked; there ought, however, to be some indication that the advanced boys at least have been made familiar with those abbreviated methods which will give them readiness and rapidity in the exchange, at market, or in the counting-house.

Again, questions out of the common routine, and such as involve principles familiar to those who know algebra, are either not attempted at all, or the proper way of solving them is quite missed; and this must be entirely owing to the teachers not having exercised their pupils, sufficiently long at least, on such questions to familiarise them with the methods of solution. Out of a class of 15 boys and 2 girls, ages ranging from 10 to 14, many attempted a very easy question, the reduction of florins to £ *s. d.*; yet one pupil only, a girl, worked it correctly; but by the roundabout process of multiplying by 2 and by 12, and dividing by 12 and by 20, instead of by cutting off the last figure and doubling it for the shillings.

The style of answering in these papers altogether forced upon me the conclusion that there was by far too little variety in the character of the questions set before the learner, that the subject was very little used as a means of developing the process of reflection; and that in very many cases it was committed to the care of a teacher who had no knowledge of mathematics.

I need hardly remark that what has just been said does not apply to *all* the schools examined.

These faults notwithstanding, the arithmetic in endowed and private schools cannot be pronounced generally bad. Gross ignorance and carelessness, such as to show thorough incompetence in the teacher, are rare: out of more than 100 schools I do not remember more than five or six instances. On the other hand, a really good class, at once quick, accurate, and intelligent, is no less uncommon. Not many teachers succeed in making arithmetic otherwise than disagreeable to boys: still fewer extract from it its full value as a means of giving a boy the power of forming clear perceptions, of applying old principles to new cases, of analysing facts given so as to discover the relationship which subsists among them.

V.—*Geography.*

Geography.

A boy generally begins geography when he is from 9 to 11 years of age, about the same time when he is introduced to English grammar. This subject, which is not, like the four preceding, made an essential in the Government schools, is supposed to mark a higher style of education, and so to distinguish the "commercial" from the "primary" school. It is pursued without intermission for several years, as long, in fact, as the boy stays in the school (unless, of course, it is a classical one where boys remain till 17). It is generally taught without any aid from globes, and sometimes even without maps. In cheap schools the boys have frequently no atlases of their own to find the places on. Without globes, maps, or atlases, geography must be a mere string of names, and such I often found it. Perceiving that a good deal of stress was laid upon it as a commercial subject, I examined at least one class in almost every school; generally orally, sometimes also dictating a number of questions to which the scholars wrote down answers on their slates.

As commonly taught, it may be distributed into three branches —political and commercial, mathematical, and physical.

Political geography.

In political and commercial geography, the answering of the boys examined was usually respectable. They knew the counties of England, the large rivers and principal seaports, the local manufactures. When carried across the Straits of Dover their confidence visibly declined, and they could tell little except the names of the chief mountains and rivers and the capital towns.

Knowledge slender; except of familiar things in the map of England.

For instance, in a school whose geography was perhaps the very best I met with, nobody had ever heard of Salzburg. Few could tell me anything about the Austrian empire, except that Vienna was its capital and the Danube ran through it. Scarcely ever did anyone know that more than one language was spoken within its compass. To take another example, when questioning them, as I frequently did, on the comparative heights of mountains in Europe, I never could find one boy who had heard of the Sierra Nevada. Of course one would not expect most children to know, or if they knew, to remember, such things, nor is it important that they should: their time may be spent far better in other

ways. I only give these instances to show that the three or four years during which geography is learnt produce no great result in the way of familiarity with the map of Europe.

Very little seems to be done to connect political geography with history. Lancashire boys showed but scant knowledge of the events in English history with which the towns in their county are associated. But on the whole the subject is not unpopular with boys, who learn nothing so easily as facts and names which they are not required to think about.

Mathematical geography.

In mathematical geography it would have been still less fair to expect wide or minute knowledge; or indeed anything more than a thorough comprehension of some few elementary definitions and principles. Such comprehension, however, is scarcely ever to be found. Some schools pass over the subject altogether, or tell the boy only that the earth is round. More frequently the text-book is so far adhered to that the pages treating of the figure of the earth, of latitude, longitude, and so forth, are gone through, but generally with very little explanation or questioning by the teacher. The boys had generally some notion of the meaning of terms, but it was crude and inexact. Asking them what the equator was, the answer was, in nine cases out of ten, "A thing that goes through (or runs round) the middle of the earth." If ever asked in sport, after they had defined a meridian, which was the longest meridian, they invariably answered, "The meridian of Greenwich." Most knew that the poles and the axis of the earth had something to do with one another, very few knew what. One boy, I remember, told me that the poles are "things which prop up the "earth." The ideas of mathematical geography are no doubt difficult for boys, but since they are not beyond their comprehension, this difficulty is rather a gain when wisely used. There is nothing better calculated to form the habit of clear, precise, and accurate thought, than the study of these rudiments of geography, yet there is no part of geography so constantly neglected.

Confused and inexact.

Physical geography.

In schools of the better class, a good deal of attention is now given to physical geography, and very creditable results are attained; for it is a subject in which boys are ready to be interested. Being, however, a thing of recent introduction, it has not yet made its way into the minor private schools, nor the more old-fashioned grammar schools; where the children have often told me that the east of England is the most mountainous part, or that flat countries are generally rainy. There were classes, however, in several schools which it was a pleasure to question in the subject, so much intelligence had it developed under a good teacher. The limit to its usefulness is the scarcity of persons competent to teach it. In several otherwise good schools the boys answering well in certain things were altogether silent respecting others not more abstruse, to which the text-book did not seem to have referred, and it might from this be conjectured that the teacher had himself been wont to rely upon the text-book. Hence the matter had not been made sufficiently familiar to

them,—had not been brought into connexion with and illustrated by facts coming under their own observation. This neglect to bring geography home to a boy by beginning from his own town or parish, and showing how its relation to some other town would be represented in the map, is not uncommon in schools; frequently boys could not show the points of the compass; nor tell in which direction from the schoolroom door they must walk to get into Yorkshire, even though they knew that Yorkshire lay east from Lancashire. Physical geography, however, has in this respect a peculiar value, since it is not only capable of ready illustration from common phenomena, but may be made a portal to many sciences, a means by which some notion of what science deals with can be simply and easily given. It cultivates not the memory merely, like political geography, but also the power of tracing causes and grasping relations; it may be made to stimulate the imagination and to give a taste for reading to boys who show no turn for linguistic studies. For this it would be needful to have men of some scientific knowledge as teachers of geography; at present it is too often thrown, as an easy subject, into the hands of some inferior master, who knows no better and desires no more than to follow the text-book.

Of the schools examined in geography 15 per cent. were marked good, 35 tolerable, 30 poor, and 20 bad. These marks refer chiefly to political and commercial geography, questions in physical being rarely answered unless the subject was expressly taught (when it was generally well taught), and mathematical being almost always unsatisfactory. Although, therefore, the knowledge of ordinary things was pretty fair, this result, as a whole, is not worth the two or three hours per week spent upon it during four or five continuous years of school life.

VI.—*History.*

History.

Beginning sometimes along with, sometimes a year or two after geography, history is a constant quantity in the school work from the age of 10 or 11 up till 15 (if the boy remain so long at school). It receives usually two hours a week in school, besides the evening preparation. The senior boys in classical schools generally do some Greek or Roman history as a part of their classical work; and in a very few schools modern European history, especially that of France, is professed to be taught. But in nine schools out of ten it is with English history alone that we have to deal.

Methods of teaching it.

Sometimes it is taught only by using a history as a reading book, giving, it may be, a question now and then on the events narrated. Sometimes it is made a regular subject; lessons are prepared in it, and questions asked with shut books. In a very few instances I found that the master dictated, or gave a sort of lecture to the class, they taking notes, and being required subsequently to reproduce or be orally examined in the substance of what he told them. Although this plan entails some trouble on the teacher,

it is no wonder that he takes refuge in it. For the common text-books, those especially of a more elementary kind, are most unsatisfactory. Some are prejudiced, if not dishonest, and give views of men and events which require constant corrections from the teacher. All are necessarily too short and meagre to engage the learner's interest. They have no room for those details or that dramatic colouring which are to all of us the most agreeable part of history, to children the only agreeable part. Their style is generally tame; occasionally it is jerky and pseudo-epigrammatic. These faults ought not to be charged on the authors of the books so much as on the apparently insuperable difficulties of the undertaking, and these text-books themselves are admirable in comparison with some works of another order which have lately begun to show themselves, books "adapted for the university local and other examinations," or in other words, books intended to aid crammers in preparing a boy to answer questions on subjects of which he remains ignorant. Where the means are so insufficient the result cannot be satisfactory. Examining orally in English history, which I did in almost all the schools where it was taught, I found that there was usually some knowledge of common facts. In nine cases out of ten several children in each class could tell the date of the Norman conquest, and which English king it was who had his head cut off by his subjects, besides showing some little acquaintance with the details of one or more periods. For instance, they were able to name the leader of the great rebellion against Henry the Fourth, and knew what was its issue; or they could state the chief battles in the Parliamentary war. While knowing these things, however, which the book told them directly, they might happen to be ignorant of simpler and more important facts, things which the book had assumed, or which they had not been made to notice. Children, for instance, who knew that Britain had been invaded by the Romans, Saxons, Danes, and Normans, would say that the Saxons were Christians when they landed and the Normans heathens. Some even reversed the order, and brought the Romans in between the Danes and Normans: one, I think, made Julius Cæsar conquer at Hastings. Still more frequently boys who were quite above such mistakes as these showed little comprehension of the meaning of the terms they used and the facts which they rattled off so glibly. Being told on one occasion that William the Conqueror introduced the feudal system, I asked what the feudal system was, and was answered, "The ringing of a bell in the evening." So with regard to Magna Charta, to the acts of Simon of Montfort, to the contest of Charles I. and his Parliaments, and so forth. In all these matters, when they seemed to have learnt something, it generally turned out that they had learnt words and nothing more. They did not understand—how should they?—what it was all about.

The text-books.

Knowledge for the most part unsubstantial and profitless.

It was different of course with senior boys—boys of 15 and upwards, who might read Macaulay's Essays, and whose minds were opening to take an interest in the news of the day. From them I had sometimes exceedingly good answering in English history, and should probably have had it oftener, but for the practice

in classical schools of dropping English history soon after 14, and substituting ancient. These exceptions, however, do not seriously affect the general result. In most cases the boys while showing a tolerable, though often confused, knowledge of the surface facts, have no comprehension of their meaning and bearing.

Two reasons may be assigned for this phenomenon. At 13 it is only a naturally clever boy, or one brought up in a peculiarly stimulating home atmosphere, whose knowledge of the things that are passing in the world, of the arrangements of the British Constitution, of the war on the Continent, of the differences between Roman Catholics and Protestants, is sufficient to make him able to understand things of the same kind when they meet him in the history of the past.* If he never opens a newspaper, and does not know the difference between Whigs and Tories; if he fancies, as I found some boys fancying, that members of Parliament are nominated by the Queen, what, except words, can he know about Magna Charta and the Bill of Rights?

Again, competent teachers are wanting. Even were the text-books good, there is no subject in which it is so necessary to supplement and explain the text-book by digressions and familiar illustrations and references to passing events. As the text-books are dull and dry, such amplification is all the more needed, but the teachers can seldom give it, even when they are able men. History stands almost alone among the common branches of instruction, in that it is not a thing which any good teacher can teach by dint of a little previous study. Although wide knowledge is always of the greatest use in teaching even the elements of any subject, still a clever man may teach geometry, or natural history, or Latin to good purpose without being a proficient in these subjects. But to teach history one must have made history a study, and must know something about things which are not to be found in any school-book, perhaps not even in Lingard and Hallam. To make the past intelligible and interesting, even to boys, a man must have learnt in some measure to throw himself back into the past, and realize it in detail as well as in outline; and this nothing but independent study will enable him to do.

There is one point in which the want of skill or judgment on the part of those who now teach history is often conspicuous. Schoolboys go through the Bible and the History of England with absolutely no idea of time. Abraham, Nebuchadnezzar, St. Paul, and Queen Elizabeth all stand to them at the same distance; of the ages that lie between these personages, even of the order in which they come, there is little notion; it is enough that they are all portions and parcels of the dreadful past. They are not taught to regard the history of their own country as a fragment out of the history of the world: they do not know what, if anything, Jews and Greeks and Romans—of all of whom they have heard something—had to do with ourselves. So again of more modern

* If boys were really well taught in preparatory schools, this would not be the case to so great an extent as it is at present.

European history. It is common to find boys really expert in English history who can tell nothing about any other country; who, while they are at home in the life of Henry the Second, or Henry the Eighth, have no notion of contemporaneous events in Germany and France, and can tell no more about the Pope than that he lives in Rome. It is only when English kings marry the daughters of foreign potentates that the text-book notices those persons or their states, and teachers seldom supply the omission of the text-book.

It seemed fair to conclude from these facts that history, as at present taught to boys under 14, is of very little service. If an improvement is to be sought, it will probably be found in the adoption of one or other of two possible courses.

(α) The teaching may be made of more importance than it is now by procuring better and fuller text-books; and, since historical students cannot be made teachers, by making teachers themselves bestow more attention on history, and qualify themselves to explain it in a simple and agreeable way. More time would in that case have to be spent on it, but as children might be expected under such treatment to become interested in a study which makes no great demand on their powers of thought and attention, but would rather be felt as a relaxation after Latin or arithmetic, the time so spent would not be lost. A taste for reading might be implanted, and boys who show little aptitude for the study of language might in this way be rescued from idleness.

(β) Or an opposite course may be taken. The regular teaching of history may be abandoned as unsuited to boys too young to have any idea of time, any knowledge of life and society. That they may not be grossly ignorant of things which every Englishman is expected to know, they must be required to learn by heart, from a short, clear, bare abstract, a few of the leading facts, some twenty dates of great events, the succession of English kings and dynasties, the places where great battles have been fought. These they might learn without being required to understand much about them, just as they learn their catechisms in the hope that at some future day ideas will attach themselves to the words. Little time would be needed for this—not one-fifth of what is now spent on history. Meantime they should be with all diligence encouraged to read books about history for themselves; and more pains should be taken than are taken now to throw such books in their way. But systematic teaching should begin not earlier than fourteen or fifteen, when they are within a year of leaving school. Then the subject may, if it is thought proper, be taken up vigorously, with some prospect of good results; advanced text-books should be placed in the learner's hands, and an attempt made to acquaint him with the existing constitution of Great Britain and the general course of European affairs.

This latter course would probably be found easier in practice, as well as more really beneficial to the boys. But some schoolmasters, readily admitting the worthlessness of the history they now teach to young boys, say that they should never hear the last

of it from parents if history were omitted, even during a year or two of the pupil's progress, from the school curriculum.

As regards the more advanced boys in the higher schools, boys of from 16 to 18 years of age, it is agreed on all hands that they ought to receive more and better historical teaching than they do now. In particular, it seems desirable that greater pains should be taken to induce them to read for themselves—a task not so far beyond the teacher's power as he seems to believe it. And in actual teaching, it would be well to give them an idea of the reality of the subject by bringing the past into relation with the present more intimately and constantly.* In one or two cases I found teachers doing this—connecting the discussions on the Government Reform Bill of 1866 with the ancient constitution of Parliament, or explaining, while war was brewing on the continent, the origin of the Germanic Confederation. But these were very rare exceptions. To most boys, even elder boys, history is at this moment the old almanack into which Mr. Windham did not want to see it turned.

VII.—*English Grammar.*

English grammar.

It is only of late years that English grammar has been regularly taught in the Lancashire schools, nor is it even now to be found in those grammar schools whose system remains chiefly classical. On the other hand there is nothing on which some of the private schools lay more stress, since grammar and analysis (as it is called) hold an important place in the University local examinations, from which these schools seek distinction. The certificated masters, few of whom are classical scholars, are generally well trained in these subjects, and look on them as an excellent substitute for Latin grammar. Being active and ambitious men, they are becoming numerous in the private adventure schools, and are sometimes to be found, even as head masters, in the grammar schools. English grammar is a subject respecting the teaching of which it is hard to express any general opinion, because there is none wherein school differs so much from school, and teacher from teacher. Its utility as a branch of education depends wholly upon the extent to which it serves to make boys think, and teach them to understand and apply principles which, under the form of grammar, are at bottom logical. One is often told, it is true, that its use is to make people "write and speak the English language "correctly," but I could not find that it had any perceptible effect in that direction, except in so far as it quickened the intelligence generally. How much is due to imperfect teaching I know not, but certainly a knowledge of the rules in the book does not seem to make any difference to the common speech of the boys; those who were proficients in the theory being as bad as their neighbours in the practice. That the converse is true no one doubts. Therefore a great deal of the grammar contained in the

Valuable rather as a means of mental discipline, than for any directly practical purpose.

* It need hardly be said that it would be better for a teacher not to attempt this than to do it in the spirit of a partizan.

ordinary books and taught to boys with so much pain might just as well be omitted. What does it profit to learn that adjectives are compared by *er* and *est*, except in certain cases,—good, better, best; small, less, least; and so forth? A boy knows this already, and is no better for learning it by heart out of the book, where its very obviousness makes it perplexing. Or why should he plod through those tiresome rules about the plural of nouns? If he is a smart boy, and has been taught spelling carefully, he will write the plural of "lady" correctly: if not, he does not seem to do it a bit the better for being able to repeat the rule in the grammar. So with the formation of moods and tenses, with the lists of irregular verbs, and so forth. All these would be appropriate enough in an English grammar for foreigners, just as they are supposed to be in those Latin grammars, on the model of which our own have been constructed.* But for an English boy it is hard to see what purpose they serve. They neither add to his knowledge nor strengthen his mind. If he has not learnt Latin, the whole thing is, as stated in most grammars, utterly dark and meaningless to him. If he has learnt Latin, he sees vaguely what it means, but he can't understand why the very same terminology of cases, tenses, and the like, should be employed in teaching an uninflected and an inflected language. Before he learnt Latin, he could not see why the same word "man" should be sometimes said to be in the nominative case and sometimes in the objective. After having been taught when to use *homo* and when *hominem*, it is clear enough, but he still finds it difficult to realize that "he might, "could, would, or should have loved" is a tense in the same sense as *amavisset*. Of course I do not mean to discuss the question of what an English grammar ought to be in the abstract, but merely of its terms and method as applied to the mind of a boy who is suddenly set down to a difficult subject. Nor would it be necessary to eject from our grammars—no doubt wonderfully improved of late years—all these rules for the formation of the plural, lists of so-called irregular verbs, irregular comparisons, and so forth. They may well stand there for purposes of reference; the objection is only to forcing children to learn them—to teaching a boy his own language in precisely the same fashion in which we should teach him Latin or French.

Questionable utility of much that is now included in it.

It need hardly be said that the best teachers, even when they required these things to be learnt, laid no great stress upon them, but were chiefly occupied in making their children understand the nature, properties, and relations of the parts of speech, the distinction between the different species of nouns and verbs, the functions of the moods, and so forth. The value of such teaching, whether for boys who are to learn Latin or for others, does not need to be proved: in the one case it is a good introduction; in the other the best substitute. I was often surprised by the intelligent answers which even little fellows of 10 or 11 gave to questions on these topics; questions for which, in some cases, they could not

* Setting aside for the present the question whether even in learning Latin or French grammar boys should be required to learn rules by heart.

have been prepared. There is no better test of a teacher's skill than to hear him give a lesson on this subject. A man of the old school takes the book in his hands, turns to page 2, and begins, "What is etymology?" "How many parts of speech are there?" "Name them." Requested to go a little further into the matter, he proceeds: "What is the rule for the comparison of adjectives?" "What are the exceptions to this rule?" &c. &c. To such questions the boys replied in the words of the book, and could, indeed, reply no otherwise. Questioning them, I found them unable to explain, in their own words, the meaning of the simplest terms they had been using, or indeed to do anything except recognize—not without many bad guesses—the nouns and adjectives in a passage read aloud. Exceptionally bad schools failed even in this.

Taking one school with another, there can be no doubt that the teaching of grammar has grown greatly better within the last 15 or 20 years. What seems to be still wanted is a clearer conception of the purposes for which it is taught, of the parts of it on which the chief stress ought to be laid, and of the relation which it ought to bear to Latin or French—if these tongues also form part of the school work. There may be many phenomena of English etymology, many rules of English syntax on which it is proper to exercise a pupil who will not study any other, yet of slight consequence to one who is intended to pursue the study of some other language.

Grammatical analysis.

In some of the less conservative schools, it has now become usual to follow up the teaching of grammar by that of the analysis of sentences—a subject on which the University local examiners have taken under their especial patronage. Judging from the performances of the boys whom I questioned, it must be, in the hands of a good teacher, an instrument of considerable value—one by whose means boys may learn a good deal of the elements of logic without knowing it. On the other hand care has to be taken that it does not sink into a mechanical repetition of technical terms. In some of the classes which I questioned, though the boys were able, apparently by a sort of rule-of-thumb process, to name the subject and predicate of any tolerably easy sentence, throwing off to right and left the so-called "prepositional" and "adverbial" "extensions," they did not appear to have derived much general benefit from it, nor even to have approached any nearer to a true insight into the principles of language. This error might possibly be corrected by occasionally dropping technical terms and requiring the children to express the relations of the parts of the sentence in some other way: as also by connecting the practice of analysis very closely with the teaching of grammar, especially the grammar of some other language than our own, instead of cultivating it as a separate art. The whole thing, however, is still a novelty, and in ten years' time teachers will know better what to think about it, and how to pursue it.

Of what is called the teaching of the English language, in a higher sense—the philological study of its forms, its idioms and constructions, its great literary monuments, I saw too little to

enable me to state to you any conclusion respecting either the value of the study, or the method that should be pursued in cultivating it. Many persons expressed to me their fear that little could be made of English philology without some knowledge of German, and others declared that the teaching of English literature by means of manuals, with only a cursory study of short extracts from the original authors, had little value, and readily degenerated into an affair of mere cram. The danger from manuals is a very real one; but there seems reason to believe that a prolonged and thorough study of Chaucer, Shakespeare, or Milton, such as one or two teachers have begun to introduce, might be made agreeable to advanced boys as well as highly beneficial. The question remains, however, whether the time and pains spent in this way might not be equally well spent in classics or science. Those who advocate the study of English philology do so from the vantage ground of persons whose own philological judgment and taste has been formed by a study of the classical languages, and a comparison of the forms of Latin with those of the modern Romance tongues. To such scholars the philology of our own language is full of interest and profit. It is an assumption to suppose that it would be so in anything like a similar degree to a boy knowing neither one of the classical languages nor any form of old Low German, perhaps not even modern High German.

VIII.—*English Composition.*

English composition.

Generally neglected.

An account of the teaching of English composition in Lancashire need hardly be longer than the well-known chapter upon Icelandic snakes. Composition is not taught in Lancashire. Only in a very few schools out of so many, and in them to no great extent, did I find any systematic endeavour to show boys how to use words and form sentences. The rest confined themselves to prescribing essays or themes to be written—a very different thing from training boys to write them. The importance of the subject, whether as a mental exercise or for its practical utility, cannot be over-estimated. For the want of some little instruction and practice in it most people go all their lives unable to express themselves on paper without clumsiness and obscurity. Merchants complain that they seldom find a boy of 16 or 17 who can write a plain letter clearly and grammatically—though the ability to do so is for commercial purposes only less valuable than excellence in penmanship and accounts. In spite of this little or nothing is done, except the setting of themes and correcting them in a way which, for all that I could see, does not enable a boy to do them one whit better next time. Little or no attempt is made (except as aforesaid, in two or three schools) to give him the art of putting sentences together so as to express a direct meaning in grammatical form. In those schools where I gave a subject for an essay or letter the result was generally poor, showing that little had been done to stimulate either the taste or

Causes of this neglect.

the ingenuity of boys. This neglect may partly be due to the fact that composition never seems to have been recognized as part of the conventional curriculum, and therefore is not, like geography or arithmetic, an object of parental care; partly to its undeniable difficulty. Most schoolmasters really don't know how to teach it.

Methods of teaching composition.

How it ought to be taught is indeed a question far more easy to put than to answer. To prescribe essays is to require boys to find ideas as well as words, and this double effort, even if we avoid those favourite topics upon which so many generations of unhappy novices have descanted, friendship, patriotism, the pleasures of virtue, and the like, is beyond the strength of most minds of 15. On the other hand the practice of paraphrasing a given passage of some good author (a favourite device in some schools) is open to grave objections. It obliges boys to find some other words than those which are, by hypothesis, the best that can be used to express a given meaning, and therefore directly tends to encourage a roundabout, diluted, feeble style—the mock majesty of polysyllabic penny-a-liners. Hence it would seem that the best plan is to begin by providing the learner with his materials—the ideas to be expressed, apart from the words in which he is to express them, and then by degrees to lead him on until he is able, out of given sources, to extract materials for himself. A short lecture may be delivered before him on some easy subject, or a passage read aloud from a book, and when a sufficiently long time has elapsed for the words to have faded from his memory, while yet the ideas remain distinct, he may be required to reproduce the substance in his own way. Or he may write an account of something which he has himself seen or done, the order being if necessary suggested to him; or he may be sent to observe some village or building or landscape or public ceremony, and made to describe it in the plainest, clearest way; or he may write imaginary letters on prescribed subjects. The great point, in the opinion of experienced teachers, is that the exercise shall be made as easy as possible, and shall relate to something which an intelligent boy may understand and take an interest in. Above all, he must never be obliged to write unless he has got something to say, whether that something be his own, or be stated to him in such a way that he can make it his own.

IX.—*Mathematics.*

	Endowed Schools.	Private Schools.
Per-centage of schools teaching it - - -	63	54
Do. of boys learning it - - -	21	16

Mathematics.

It is common to hear three different objections brought against the teaching of classics in schools. Latin and Greek, it is said,

are in the great majority of cases not pursued far enough to give their study any substantial value, or bring out what excellences it may have. They are of little or no practical use in the world, whether they be pursued far or not. The mental training which they give, admitting its utility, can be gained equally well by a systematic study of English grammar, or by that of some modern language, French, German, or Italian. No one of these three arguments can be brought against mathematical study. Its utility as a mental exercise begins from the first; some indeed hold the elements, when thoroughly handled, to be the most valuable part of all. Although not necessary to a business man, there are, nevertheless, many occasions in life when it is likely to prove useful to him, many other studies in which it will assist him. As a means of mental training it is peculiar, and admits no substitute; nothing else can equally well cultivate certain intellectual powers and habits. All this being obvious enough, one might expect to see the claims of mathematics pressed by those who assail classics, and an important place in the educational curriculum yielded to it. In Lancashire, at least, as a reference to the Table prefixed will show, the case is quite otherwise. In many schools mathematics are not taught; very little time is allotted to the study, and boys are not carried very far in it. Most do not go beyond the first book of Euclid; very few indeed go through the first six, or advance in algebra as far as quadratic equations. It was not often, therefore, that I had an opportunity of conducting a satisfactory examination in it; although anxious to do so wherever the attainments of the scholars made it possible. Of the papers done, a fair per-centage might be pronounced creditable, perhaps one third of the whole; the rest tolerable; some few very bad. But the state of the case is somewhat worse than these figures indicate, for there were many schools whose curriculum is adorned by the names of geometry and algebra, where the masters preferred that their boys should not be examined, alleging that they had not gone far enough, and had not been able to devote sufficient time to the subject to make it fair to put them to the test. I doubt, therefore, whether more than 20 per cent. of the schools professing to teach mathematics (*i.e.* about 11 per cent. of the whole number of schools) teach it to any purpose.

General neglect of the study.

Results of examination in paper.

The work done on paper was for the most part solid and accurate. Propositions set directly out of Euclid were often done with much care and neatness; on the other hand there was, except in one or two schools, an almost total absence of ingenuity in attempting to deal with any problem or theorem, deducible from Euclid, for which a proof had to be discovered. The excellence of one school in particular seemed to me to show that more might have been done by the rest than I should otherwise have ventured to hope for.

Comparing the results of the examination papers done by the boys with such observations as I was able to make in questioning the boys, or hearing them questioned by their teachers, I was led to form the impression that the teaching of mathematics, as at

present conducted, is susceptible of considerable improvements. And I found this to be also the opinion of many schoolmasters of ability whose views I had the opportunity of inquiring.

Defects observable in the teaching of geometry.

There are, it would seem, three points in which it is most frequently defective.

Superficial treatment of the rudiments—definitions, axioms, and so forth.

1. Sufficient care is not taken in laying the foundation. The definitions, postulates, and axioms, which a boy ought to know as he knows his multiplication table, are often imperfectly remembered or understood. Often there is little notion of the difference between an axiom and a definition, or between a theorem and a problem. And although it may be well not to puzzle a boy at starting with the metaphysics of the subject, it is surely both possible and expedient to call his attention, when he has made some little progress, to the nature of deductive proof, and the foundations on which it rests; leading him to compare the evidence of a geometrical theorem with that of a law of physics, or a fact in history.

Slavish adherence to the words and figures given in the text-book.

2. The staple of the work to be done, in geometry, is of course the learning and saying the propositions as they stand in Euclid.* In some of the less advanced schools, endowed as well as private, the old useless fashion prevails of making the boy get up and repeat what he has evidently learnt by heart. Sometimes a figure is not drawn at all; or if it is, the accustomed letters are always put in the accustomed places. Of course as soon as an examiner shifts these letters, or turns the figure upside down, or makes some perfectly immaterial alteration in the construction, the boy is bewildered and comes to a stop; the master explaining, in an aggrieved tone, that if he had been allowed to do it according to the way or with the letters given in the book, he could have done it quite correctly. Such ignorance as this is now happily rare, and would disappear in any school visited from time to time by a regular examiner. And against it must be set the exceptionally good teaching to be found in a few schools, where the master requires the boys to explain every step of the process, throws them back on former propositions for their proof, or himself, it may be, requires them to vary the construction.

Neglect of deductions.

3. Connected with the tendency to stick too closely to the book, and make too little of geometrical method as a means of intellectual training, is the general neglect of deductions, or, as others call them, deducibles. When one, however easy, was proposed to a class, even a fairly good class, the master seldom consented to their trying it, saying that he never gave such an exercise, it was too difficult. It is, no doubt, harder to solve a deduction than to learn and repeat a proposition, and some boys might perhaps never succeed in doing them at all. But this is only a reason for setting easy ones, and for giving the boys some idea how to go to work on them. As to the value of the exercise, intellectually considered, there was a general agreement. It is the only satisfactory measure of a boy's knowledge of Euclid, for it

* I heard one teacher speak with approbation of the French system of teaching into Euclid, but practical geometry. But no one seems to have tried this method.

requires him to apply foregone propositions: it is the best test of his intelligence of the deductive method and the nature of demonstrative proof, since instead of passively following, as he does when he repeats a proposition out of the book, he is thrown on his own resources, required to invent, and to examine the validity of what he has invented. Many boys appear to find geometry dull just because no appeal is made to their own ingenuity; such boys, if they possess any mathematical capacity, would have their interest in the study quickened by the occasional stimulus of independent work, and the pleasures of discovery. Of course such an exercise would always be in great measure optional; that is to say, no boy ought ever to be punished for not succeeding in a deduction, as he might be for not learning his Euclid. But it would be as fair to reward the talent and diligence of a boy who did succeed, as it is to give prizes for verse composition, a thing for which many boys have no capacity whatever.

Algebra. Algebra holds, in schools of the second order, a place even lower than that of geometry; and but few of those who enter upon it reach the point where its chief interest begins—the solution of equations. Its value as an educational discipline, like that of geometry, is generally lost sight of. Rules are given but not the reasons for the rule; it is therefore only by dint of great natural cleverness that a boy becomes master of the processes, and able to apply them in cases to which the rule does not expressly refer.

Algebraic geometry: the calculus. Of the higher mathematics it is unnecessary to speak, as there are not more than six or seven schools in the county in which a class can be found regularly working at them. Several of these, Rossall for instance, and the Lancaster Grammar School, have distinguished themselves highly at Cambridge by the performances of their pupils.

Mensuration. In some of the country endowed schools, places giving for the most part a purely elementary education, mensuration is taught to one or two of the farmers' sons, of course solely for practical purposes, and in an unscientific form. They do not seem, so far as I could ascertain, to learn enough to turn it to any good account.

Causes of the depressed state of mathematical study. I heard no sufficient reason assigned for the neglect of mathematical studies in Lancashire, and can therefore only ascribe it to the aversion to everything in education which is not "practical" in the narrowest sense of the word. Against this tendency, so strong in a mercantile community, Latin has partly held its ground, being already in possession, and being supposed to mark the gentleman. Mathematics, having no such anchor, has failed to stem the current, and even its practical utility, since not always of the directest kind, has been generally forgotten.

The unsatisfactory condition of geometry and algebra, in the schools where they are actually taught, may be more easily explained.

Most of these, excepting of course those six or seven already mentioned, look only to one thing, and are more than sufficiently blessed if they attain it, the possession of a Cambridge man. What his degree is they sometimes inquire; what his gift of teaching is, scarcely ever. The head master, himself rarely a mathematician,

feels that he has done all that Fate or parents can require, and is ready to meet every question with one answer, "My mathematical master, sir, is a Master of Arts of Cambridge College."

X.—*Latin.*

—	Endowed Schools.	Private Schools.
Per-centage of schools teaching it - - -	82	68
Do. of boys learning it - - -	41	26

Different classes of schools teaching Latin.

There are in Lancashire three sets of schools in all of which Latin is taught, but taught with a quite different object. First, we have those whose instruction is directed towards the universities, and in which classics therefore reign supreme, all other subjects being subordinated to them. To these belong Rossal, Stonyhurst, the Royal Institution School in Liverpool, the upper school of the Liverpool College, and two or three of the chief grammar schools of the county, especially those of Manchester and Lancaster. Next comes a much larger class, including most town grammar schools, and some expensive private schools, where Latin is taught partly in deference to tradition, partly because it is considered necessary to a gentleman. Lastly, there are other schools, private and endowed, in which some vestiges of classical teaching linger, four or five boys out of forty or fifty learning the accidence and getting so far as to read Cæsar and stumble through a few lines of Virgil. Even this modicum is supposed to confer dignity on the school, and gratifies a parent somewhat more ambitious than his fellows. It is of course almost without effect on the general character of such schools, and may practically be dismissed from further consideration. In the schools of the first class, on the other hand, the classical system is in all respects similar to that of the schools reported upon by the Commission of 1861, with whose character and working every one is well acquainted. In treating therefore of the quality of Latin teaching in Lancashire, the defects at present observable in it, and the grounds on which it is attacked and defended, it is chiefly to the intermediate or semi-classical schools that the attention of an inquirer must be directed, to those schools in which Latin occupies about as much of the learner's time as does arithmetic. It is to these that the observations I have to make will mainly refer.

Peculiar difficulties in treating of classical teaching.

The subject of classical teaching is perhaps the most serious and the most difficult upon which, in describing the present state of instruction in Lancashire, it is necessary to touch:—the most serious, because the first question now asked about every school to be founded or every curriculum of studies to be set in operation, is whether it shall or shall not include Latin:—the most difficult, because its discussion is conducted on peculiar and, so to speak, incommensurable grounds. Its enemies object that it is useless for practical purposes; its advocates reply that from nothing else can such mental discipline be obtained. What this mental discipline

consists in is a matter that may be argued for ever *à priori*, but towards the determining of whose merits experiment and other practical tests have done little or nothing. Moreover very few people can bring themselves to argue the question with impartiality and a strict attention to the conditions of the argument. Parents see only the practical side of the matter; teachers who are themselves classical scholars look at it through the medium of their own pride or their own enthusiasm: even feelings of a very different order are imported into it, and it is discussed, like so many other things in vigorous Lancashire, almost as a political question. In this conflict of opinion and testimony it is hard to keep a clear view of the points at issue; still more hard to satisfy one's self respecting them; and it is therefore with great reluctance that I venture to approach the subject at all.

Slowness with which Latin is learnt.

Quantity of time spent upon it.

The first phenomenon which strikes a person who examines boys in Latin is the slowness with which they seem to learn it. This is also one of the principal accusations brought against it as a branch of instruction; and that not without reason. A boy who goes through a complete classical course at school, beginning the Latin grammar at eight, and going to the university at eighteen, spends at least 12,000, perhaps 15,000 hours in the study. A boy in one of the Lancashire semi-classical grammar schools probably begins Latin at nine, and goes on with it till sixteen, spending each day from two to three hours on Latin alone, and in the course of these seven years not less than 4,000 hours. At the end of this time, a boy of rather more than average abilities and industry is able, in the former case, to write passable Latin and Greek verses and indifferent Latin prose. He can translate Cicero with facility, and make something of Æschylus with the aid of a dictionary and a commentary. He has ideas, though not very clearly defined, respecting the use of Latin moods and Greek particles; but of the philology of these languages in a higher sense he knows only one or two isolated facts. In the latter case he can do little prose and no verse; can but just construe Cicero or Homer (the latter with a dictionary), and has never heard of philology. The price paid in time and labour for these attainments seems to parents rather a high one, and schoolmasters are puzzled to explain why so many years should be needed to do so little.

Results in the case of wholly classical and semi-classical schools.

Causes of the frequently to be noted failure.

Of the many reasons assigned, two appear to be just, and are certainly sufficient to account for the phenomenon. Firstly. Since it is with Latin that the severer part of a boy's education begins, the difficulty which would in any case be felt in bringing him into working order, and accustoming his mind to continuous attention and exertion, is felt first in the teaching of Latin, and therefore unjustly charged on it as if peculiar to it. Secondly, Latin is still, in spite of the experience of so many centuries, taught in an unintelligent and wasteful way. As a language is one of the hardest things a boy can be set to learn, so is it also that in which his failure and ignorance are most easily detected; since he can neither translate nor compose without remembering a good many grammatical facts and applying, consciously or unconsciously, a variety of grammatical principles. The structure of Latin, so

unlike our own analytic English, increases this difficulty and makes it the more needful that every pains should be taken to smooth the learner's path. The lessons should not be too long; the exercises should be carefully graduated; no terms of art should be used without giving some explanation of their meaning; the pupil should be kept from falling into blind imitation and thoughtless repetition; above all, the teacher should be always on his guard against believing that a familiarity with rules and forms is in itself of any educational value. All this seems obvious enough, but it is just what was not done in the last generation, and what to a great extent is not done even now. In most of the minor schools, teachers value a knowledge of the accidence above everything else, and talk of cultivating the memory as if the memory was not the easiest of all faculties to cultivate, and the one which might be cultivated in a hundred ways more profitable than this barren repetition of declensions and conjugations. And in schools of every grade the methods of teaching Latin are still chargeable with serious faults and still more serious omissions—faults and omissions, which often as they have been noted already by educational reformers, it may be proper briefly to enumerate.

Defects and omissions in Latin teaching as at present practised.

1. System of working at the grammar without exercises.

(1.) It is still common to take a boy through the Latin grammar without giving him any exercises in translating and retranslating—in fact without bringing the simplest Latin sentence before him at all. Declension after declension is committed to memory, and conjugation after conjugation, while yet he is never confronted by any actual nouns or verbs, as they are used in speech or writing. He learns, it may be, all the rules of syntax before he has any notion what a case is, much less what is meant by saying that a particular set of verbs or adjectives govern it. This is as if we were to teach botany to a boy who had never seen a flower; or drive him through Euclid without permitting him to look at a visible circle or triangle. The pupil can of course attach no meaning to the words which he learns by rote; Latin grammar is to him a confused jargon: for he discerns no connexion between it and anything already known, never dreaming that it is only a summary of forms and principles similar to those which he is using in his own language. The first sensation of any but the dullest mind so treated, is perplexity and annoyance; an effort to know what it is all about; disappointment and the painful feeling of labour useless because apparently resultless. Soon this state passes into another and a much worse one; the wish to discern a meaning disappears; and the fatal habit is contracted of remembering without understanding—a habit which no care can afterwards eradicate. Why such a practice should continue to exist it is very hard to see. Sometimes it is mere adherence to custom on the part of teachers who were so taught themselves, and know no better. Sometimes again it is because the teacher, who feels that when exercises are intermixed with the learning of the accidence, explanations must be given, shuns the trouble of explaining, and thinks it will all come right in the end. Whatever the cause, it is a system which all the ablest teachers whom I met agreed in

condemning. Nothing, in their opinion, did so much to make Latin hateful to the boy, and to destroy the tone of his mind.

2. Superabundance of rules and exaggerated estimate of their value.

(2.) An error more common if less serious than the last, and not confined, like it, to old-fashioned schools, is the superabundance of rules with which the pupil's memory is burdened. Among rules (*i.e.* formulas to be learnt by heart) we may distinguish two classes; rules expressing intelligible principles, whether of Latin grammar or of grammar generally; and rules stating grammatical facts, matters of mere Latin usage. As regards the former, it is not only obvious, but hackneyed to urge that it is better the boy learn the principle than the rule, and in fact that there is no gain in his knowing the rule unless he knows the principle. But in most schools the rule is still the only thing regarded, partly because the teacher has himself never thought of the reason, partly because it seems so much easier, as for the moment it is easier both for himself and for the boy, to be contented with the form of knowledge, to pretend that the shell is the kernel. In the end, to be sure, this turns out to have been a mistake. Not only does the learner find it more difficult and disagreeable to remember rules when they are presented as purely arbitrary: he fails to apply them in translating and composing, and has to be constantly reminded of the actual application of words which he can readily repeat. To take the most familiar examples, every boy can say the rule about the agreement of verbs with their nominatives. But there is no mistake which he is more likely to make in construing than to join a singular verb with a plural noun, or *vice versâ*. Usually this comes not from ignorance of the meaning of the rule, but from mere heedlessness, natural enough among young boys, in applying it: yet such heedlessness would be far less common if the master, instead of simply giving the rule, had made the principle or fact—call it which we will—expressed by the rule so familiar to the pupil that he needed no rule to remember it by. So again with the rule respecting the agreement of a relative with its antecedent. When I asked boys, "In what does the relative agree with its antecedent?" they generally answered, "In number, gender, and case," and it was necessary to take an example and put several leading questions in order to bring them right. But when desired to give the Latin rule, the same boys rattled off "Relativus cum antecedente concordat numero genere et persona" without a moment's reflection, showing plainly enough that the form of words had lain dormant and useless in their minds. Not that any one would declare rules to be in themselves either useless or hurtful: when once firmly associated with a principle or fact explained and mastered they help the boy to keep hold of the fact and the reason together; and in so far are a valuable aid to an inconstant memory.* The

Their function:

(*a*) where they express an intelligible grammatical principle.

* I do not say that there are not some boys who have such an inaptitude for principles that it is not worth while to spend time and patience in explaining the reasons even of simple rules—boys in whose minds one must be content to let a rule stand like a dry stick in a hedge; requiring them only to repeat it and refer to it the cases which they meet with in their reading. But after all such boys are exceptions.

error seems rather to be in requiring the boy first to learn by heart, and then, if at all, to comprehend, instead of first making sure by repeated questioning and the handling of examples that he understands the matter, and then, as a necessary concession to the weakness of his mind, suffering him to sum up the facts in an easily remembered formula.

(*b*) where they express a set of phenomena or an arbitrary usage peculiar to Latin.

The other class of rules includes such as state mere usages peculiar to Latin, and therefore either less susceptible or unsusceptible of an explanation which boys can enter into. Such, for instance, are the rules regarding gender and prosodial quantity; or those enumerating verbs which govern the genitive and the dative case respectively. Here are many phenomena of which we can give no rational account, such as a boy may comprehend, yet which it is necessary that he should remember that he may translate and compose correctly. But some of my informants held that even these are learned more easily and to better purpose by usage and frequent examples than by committing lists to memory; and they argued with great apparent reason against the wearisome minuteness of the rules now commonly in use, and the long lists of exceptions wherewith the learner's memory is overburdened. "It "is better," they continued, that a boy should learn less of these "things, so that he learn that little well; better even that he should "sometimes make mistakes in the gender of a noun, or put the "dative instead of the genitive after a particular adjective, than "that he should be tired and confused in getting by heart a "multitude of facts devoid of educational value (since purely "arbitrary), and such as he can learn well enough when they "actually come before him in the course of his reading. Exceptions are of all things the most difficult to learn, since they "contradict the rule in which the mind has but just begun to "rest satisfied, and since there is seldom anything rational to "remember them by. It is no wonder that the heart of a "beginner sinks in him in toiling through a maze of details to "which the teacher gives him no clue."

How much weight is to be given to these views it is for persons of educational experience to decide. Yet without even possessing that experience it is hard to resist the impression that rules are now too numerous and too minute: that they are frequently trusted in to the neglect of explanations and practice by example; and that they sometimes perplex or obscure what they were meant to make clear.* Especially in the case of boys whose Latin is to stop at the age of 15 it is a matter of the first importance that grammars should be short, clear, and direct, giving nothing which is not absolutely necessary for even the most rough and ready knowledge of the language. Those now in use are over the head

* For example, I have heard it maintained that the elaborate rules to be found in most grammars, respecting the use of the subjunctive mood with the relative *qui* and with certain conjunctions might be omitted. Scarce a boy understands them fully: the time he spends in learning them would be better spent in working through well-selected examples. For a student of 16 they may have their value, but the point which I desire to put is that the grammar which suits a student of 16 and upwards does not suit the boy of 10 or 12.

not only of the boy in commercial schools, but very often of his teacher also.

(3.) Sufficient pains are not taken to make the pupil understand the facts, principles, or rules which he learns. Of course the better teachers usually give a word of explanation when they hear the boy repeat a rule, and answer any question which he puts respecting its meaning. But this is not enough for beginners, in whose minds the most elementary ideas of grammar have not yet been formed. To make sure that a boy has mastered anything, he should be required not only to reproduce the explanation in his own words and his own way, but to apply in concrete cases the abstract principle given him, inventing, if need be, examples for himself. Even then a teacher cannot rest satisfied: at the end of a week or two the clear outlines of the explanation will have become dim and blurred in the pupil's mind, and it will sometimes be necessary to repeat the process from the beginning. The fear of this iteration, and still more an exaggerated idea of what explanations amount to, seem to deter many teachers from attempting it. They declare it would take up too much time to make the learner comprehend everything, forgetting that time is in the end saved by whatever leads him to use his reason, and that for every principle that is firmly and clearly grasped, the learning of those that follow becomes proportionately easier. They believe that to get at the foundation and *ultima ratio* of the rules of syntax we must travel into the domain of metaphysics and logic, and insist that with most, if not with all, boys such explanation is out of the question. This may be quite true; but it is to mistake what is practically needed. Between the investigations conducted by a scientific student of language and the explanations, illustrations, and suggestions by which a boy of 10 or 12 will be benefited, there is a wide interval. With the boy it is not necessary, even were it possible, to go back to first principles in order to help him to comprehend a phenomenon as actually happening. Sometimes, yet not often, what is called a philosophical (*i.e.* rational) explanation may be given to him, or rather educed from him by the method of question and suggestion, and a skilful teacher in giving it will readily see at what point he begins to fatigue the pupil's mind or overshoot his capacity for abstract thought. But more often it is enough to make him realize in a practical manner the meaning of the technical terms employed—such terms as case, mood, tense, agreement, government, and so forth; and in giving any new rule or principle to point out whatever analogy can be discovered to it in something which he knows already, showing by copious illustrations its practical bearing. Thus even those matters whereof no explanation can be given, idioms, I mean, and abnormal usages, may be so taught as to be remembered not blindly, but with an appreciation of their place in the language, and an intelligent effort to compare them with like phenomena in English or French. Although there is nothing which clears the learner's path more than the habit of referring him to his own tongue, and showing wherein it agrees with and

3. Want of proper explanations and of any appeal to the pupil's intelligence.

Importance of introducing comparisons with other languages.

wherein it differs from Latin, most boys are left to find out all this for themselves, or more probably to puzzle themselves over it in vain. The difference, for instance, between an inflected and uninflected language is the source of much perplexity to beginners. Why *musa* and *musam* should both be rendered in English by one and the same word, and how the one word *amavisset* should require four or five words to translate it into English; why there are distinctions of gender in Latin and none (apparently) in English, and what the gender of adjectives means—these questions and others like them perplex many an intelligent boy, and disgust him with what he thinks an insoluble riddle. Meantime the teacher sees no difficulty in them and passes them over without remark.

4. Neglect of the practice of turning English into Latin.

(4.) The advisability of making boys begin at once to turn English sentences into Latin as well as Latin into English is recognized in all the best schools, and modern exercise-books are generally formed upon this plan, exercises in each language alternating. But when the pupil passes after some months out of the exercise book into a Delectus or Anthologia, perhaps into Cæsar or Cornelius Nepos, the practice of writing Latin is frequently allowed to dwindle down into a short weekly exercise. This seems to be a misfortune in every regard. If it desired to make the boy a thorough scholar, there is no accomplishment more essential than the writing of correct Latin, nor any which he needs to practice more assiduously. If he is only to receive that passable knowledge of the classics which can be attained before 15 or 16, no other exercise will so quickly make him at home in the structure of the language and give him a command over its vocabulary. A clever boy may often translate from Latin with tolerable success by looking up the words in the dictionary, and conjecturing the meaning of the sentences from them, without possessing any sound knowledge of the construction. But in

Its value.

turning English—even the simplest piece of English—into Latin, not only are the words more firmly impressed upon the memory, but a variety of rules and principles are at every moment brought into exercise, which cannot be applied without being understood, and cannot be understood without serious thought.*

There is, in the opinion of some of the most eminent teachers whom I had the opportunity of consulting, no training in accuracy and judgment better than this, and no means half so adequate of gaining a real power over and sympathy with the language. The only objection urged against its employment to a greater extent than at present, is its difficulty. Now this difficulty, though it is not to be denied, is generally exaggerated. Schoolmasters who are themselves good scholars are apt to judge

* Of the higher benefits of the exercise, I do not speak—its influence in cultivating the taste, in giving an insight into the nature and genius of the language; in forcing the composer to weigh the exact meaning of the phrase he is to render, so that he may present the same substance under a different form. These the advanced student will know how to value; but they are for the most part beyond the reach of boys of 14, unless particularly intelligent or particularly well taught.

of their boys by themselves, and to value only that sort of work which has some merit and interest in their own eyes. They think it a small thing that a boy should turn plain English into plain rough Latin: they set him down to a piece of highly wrought English,—a speech or a moral essay, and require him to turn it into highly wrought Latin, introducing as many idiomatic turns as he can, striving to copy the style and manner of one of the great classical authors. The result is generally ludicrous. It is a fine thing to soar on the wings of Ciceronian rhetoric, but few men can do it at 20, much less then at 15. And teachers, since they do not get this which they value, seem to overlook the advantages of a much humbler and plainer style of Latin composition. Why should not the pupil, after going through the elementary exercise books, be every day required to turn three or four detached English sentences into correct, but not ambitious Latin, until he came to know a good many words and had acquired some idea of syntactical arrangements? Then, after some months, he might be given a short and easy passage of some English author—the easier the better—which he should translate in the same plain and direct way, aiming at clearness and accuracy rather than at idiomatic graces, and nowise attempting to reproduce Tacitus or Livy. To the success of the experiment it would be essential that this should be done frequently—if possible daily—and done every now and then at full speed, from the teacher's dictation. Errors there would be in plenty, and in such composition we should find but little style, little classical flavour. But it would produce and represent a substantial knowledge of the language, and an amount of mental training gained in the process such as the present system has failed to impart. Those who advocate the adoption of the plan described, did not, so far as I understood them, especially dislike the existing exercise books and guides to Latin prose composition, some of which are very well adapted to their present purpose. It is to that purpose itself—to the attempt to make the composition of boys under 16 classical and imitative, that they object, holding that such an attempt is not only a failure in itself, but interferes with a sort of prose writing which might be practicable and serviceable. If the imitation of Cicero or Tacitus is essential to a finished scholar, it may, they would urge, be acquired afterwards, and will be acquired more easily when a familiarity with the language has been once attained. As a matter of fact, there are about five schools in Lancashire out of which a finished scholar can by any possibility come. The question therefore is, as regards that being, of no practical consequence.

Method in which it should be done.

(5.) Boys are seldom practised in translating pieces of Latin which they have not previously seen and prepared. Believing that there is no better test both of cleverness and of general knowledge of the language than translation at sight, I frequently proposed to set a bit of unseen Cæsar or Ovid to a class who had advanced so far as to read these authors or others usually held more difficult, Cicero and Virgil. But five schoolmasters out

5. Boys not exercised in translating at sight.

of six declined the trial for their boys, alleging that it was too severe, that they were wholly unpractised in such work, and would lose their head if set to it. Of those who did attempt it, the most broke down, as might have been expected, the grammars and dictionaries whereon they had been wont to lean being suddenly removed. They need not, however, have failed, had they not been so wholly inexperienced, for practice, though it would not for a good while enable them to know or guess all the words in such a piece, increases in a surprising manner the faculty of seizing the construction and hitting out the general drift of a passage. It seems desirable, therefore, that this art of extempore decipherment should be more cultivated than it is now; partly to stimulate the boys, and give them keenness and quickness of apprehension; partly because the power of reading Latin may be of some practical use to some of them. Many persons who have had a prolonged classical training are found unable in after life to read even easy post-classical Latin, the Latin of the mediæval chroniclers, for example, or of Luther and Bacon. It seems reasonable to ascribe this in some measure to their having been always accustomed to read with grammars, dictionaries, commentaries, perhaps even "cribs" at their elbow; so that without these appliances they are helpless. To those schoolmasters who, while they admit the value of the practice of translation at sight, consider it too difficult for any but the most advanced classes, it may be answered that its difficulty is a reason not for renouncing it, but for choosing easy pieces at first, and giving some little oral assistance to the boys in doing them. Many boys fly to "cribs" because they have no one to help them at home, and are really unable to make out the more involved sentences in their lesson. They would have less excuse for so doing if the teacher more frequently explained to them how to set about deciphering a passage, how to take a long sentence to pieces, find the principal verb and hang on the dependent clauses, each in its place. These are things which clever boys find out for themselves in time, but all boys would find them out sooner if a little more direct instruction in grammatical analysis were given them.

As regards the practicability of this suggestion, it may be mentioned that several experienced teachers told me they had applied it with great success. Others said they would try it if they had time; but that they thought steady going translation of the old sort more important. No one said that he had tried it in vain.

6. Little attempt made to treat Latin philologically.

(6.) Respecting the possibility of giving to the teaching of Latin an occasional tincture of philology, the testimony which I received was contradictory. By philology, as capable of being handled in ordinary schools, and as distinguished from pure grammar, I mean the historical elucidation of the forms and meanings of the words of any language (and to some extent also of its phrases and idioms), with more or less reference, by way of illustration, to allied forms and or analogous changes in other languages. Everyone agreed that if boys could really be interested

in matters of this kind, they would be greatly benefited by knowing something of them, and of the principles upon which they are investigated. Not only would their scholarship become in many points sounder and more philosophical, a new and wonderfully interesting field of study would be opened up to them, into which they might advance further when they grew older. But several teachers, whose own proficiency made them fully competent to try the experiment of giving to boys some fragments of their science, told me they had tried it and failed. The boys, even the clever boys, they said, could not be got to care about it. Others declared that they had succeeded, and thought that even in teaching the accidence to young pupils many difficulties were to be lessened by treating the forms in a philological way. The introduction into some schools of what is called the crude form system is an effort in this direction, and one of which those who had tried it spoke in praise, saying that it gave boys some rational notion about things which had previously been learnt by rote. They instanced the five declensions, whose apparent want of connexion perplexes boys, who can't think why the Romans wanted five and could not have got on like ourselves with one. To show the underlying relation of these declensions and the ultimate identity of their forms, was they said, a real help to intelligent boys, and set them a-thinking for themselves upon the matter. In beginning to teach Greek or French, they added, the value of philological illustrations from Latin cannot be over estimated. How far these teachers are over sanguine in their estimate of the capacities and tastes of boys, practical men can best judge. In the meantime it is at least desirable that the experiment of giving a philological tone to the teaching should be tried more widely than has yet been done.

Latin composition in prose and verse.

Of one branch of classical training to which English scholars attach great importance—composition in Latin prose and verse—it is hardly necessary for me to speak, since not more than six or seven schools in the county, perhaps 8 per cent. of the whole number of classical schools, carry it on to any substantial purpose. In these schools themselves it is taught mainly for the sake of boys who may proceed to the universities, rather than on the score of its intrinsic value, and the manner in which it is taught is therefore regulated by the practice of Oxford and Cambridge. As respects prose, the view of some experienced persons has already been stated, that it ought to be worked at far more than at present, but in a far more rough and ready way; that people should learn it, in fact, just as they would learn to write French or German. It would take its place, on this view, not as an elegant accomplishment, but as an integral part, and the most essential part, of the study of the language.

Controversy respecting the utility of verse-writing: strong representations made against it by some teachers.

The mention of verse composition opens up a question which I frequently heard debated among teachers and scholars, some rating the value of this exercise very high; others denying it altogether. The evidence given by the Lancashire schoolmasters was in the main adverse. It is not, they said, until the mechanical difficulties have been overcome that that cultivation of the taste, on which so much stress is laid, begins. Not more than one boy

in six does overcome these mechanical difficulties, and all the six have spent a vast deal of time and pains upon them which might have been spent more profitably in some other way. Some teachers expressed a wish that the universities would cease to require Latin verse, and so relieve them and their boys from a labour almost without profit. Others did not deny the merits of the exercise for advanced scholars, and would therefore have willingly seen it retained at Oxford and Cambridge; but for boys who, like the overwhelming majority of their own boys, were not to proceed there, they pronounced it almost useless.

General result of examination in Latin.

Summing up the result of my examinations in Latin, I find that of the whole number of schools in which it was seriously taught, the performances of the boys were creditable in 30 per cent.; indifferent in 40 per cent.; and worthless in 30 per cent. Among the minor schools, in which classics exist only for the sake of ornament, the per-centage of failures is much higher. Not above 10 per cent. taught Latin to any good purpose. That the average of excellence should not be higher in a subject which has been invested with so much sanctity, may seem surprising. Among several causes two may be singled out for mention.

Causes of unsatisfactory state of Latin in so many schools.

(1.) Neglect of the elementary teaching.

The teaching of the elements of Latin is very generally left to unskilful hands, to ill-paid under-masters, to petty preparatory schools, to governesses resident or visiting, who are patient and careful in hearing the little boy his accidence, but can do nothing more for him. It is perhaps not till his third or fourth year of Latin that the learner comes into the class of the head, or some one of the upper masters, who is competent both by scholarship and general capacity to give such teaching as shall seize on and influence the mind. By that time the evils of previous neglect are probably incurable. Perhaps the boy has been taught in a careless way, and gaps are left in his knowledge even of the forms and commonest usages of the language—gaps which it is too late to fill up. More probably still he has been taught without any of those explanations and illustrations which are useful to all learners, but to beginners indispensable. If they are not given at starting —that is to say if the memory only and not the intelligence is appealed to—habits of mind are formed which repel them, and become the teacher's greatest plague. A boy who has been allowed and accustomed to guess instead of thinking for the three first years of his study of a language, will continue to guess during the years that remain. The elements, it will be admitted, are really the most important part of a language, and to explain the difficulties of a new subject to untrained minds needs greater skill than to instruct trained ones in its higher branches. Yet, as schools are at present arranged, the elements and the untrained minds are left to the inexperience or ignorance of an under-master, and the head-master does not see the boy till he is made or marred.

(2.) Theory on which classics are now usually taught.

Secondly, the theory upon which the teaching of the classics proceeds is, as applied to Lancashire schools, a mistaken one. A boy of 12 is taught Latin as if he were to become some day a finished

scholar and go in for a high place in the classical tripos; nay, as if he were to go in for the classical tripos in a year or two's time. Schoolmasters when driven to defend the dead languages fall back upon their value as a means of mental training, and allege that they make the learner understand his own language better. In practice they do not greatly regard these objects. They dwell little on the principles of general grammar as exhibited in Latin, or on its relation to English, and the light it throws on the meaning of our own words. They teach it for itself, trying to impart a minute knowledge of all its etymological forms and delicacies of usage, and to form the habit of imitating the style of its great writers. These are the things in which their own ideal of fine scholarship consists, and although they know how rarely it is realized, nothing less exalted seems to them worth aiming at. Their horror at the false quantities which they attribute to Continentals; their contempt for mediæval Latin or for such colloquial Latin as was spoken in the Hungarian Diet thirty years ago, are a sample of the feelings which they carry into their schoolrooms, and which have practically given its present tone to the teaching of Latin in this country. However admirable their ideal may be in its own place, it is plainly unattainable with boys whose Latin studies do not last beyond 16. As regards Lancashire, then, the question almost comes to be between giving up Latin and teaching it in some more practical way.

The hypothesis on which the system of our classical schools rests is that a boy is to have a complete school and college course till he reaches 22 years of age. Supposing their arrangements to be the best possible on this hypothesis, it is pretty certain that they are not the best for boys whose school training, classical and general, is to stop at 16. A new curriculum is needed to meet their case; a curriculum which shall give not the first half of an education which would be good, if there were any chance of its ever being finished, but something which is in itself a whole; less admirable than the other, but, so far as it goes, tangible and complete.

Supposing Latin to retain its place in such a scheme of studies, wherein, it may be asked, can its teaching differ from that which now prevails? Without answering such a question in detail I may mention some of the points on which those persons—teachers and others—who desired a change, seemed disposed to insist.

Views of those who desire a change in the method and object of Latin teaching.

"To those who can never pursue it far enough to become "thorough scholars, Latin may be practically useful in three princi- "pal ways. Firstly, as training them to understand and apply "grammatical and logical principles. Secondly, as giving them a "knowledge of words and grammatical forms which may help "them to acquire other languages (more especially Italian, Spanish, "and French), and give them a better or more assured command "of their own. Thirdly, as introducing them to a wide literature, "and enabling them to understand quotations and allusions in "modern writers. That is to say, the great object is to give "logical training through the grammar along with a practical

"familiarity with the language. To attain this, the syntax must "be made as far as possible intelligible to the learner; he must be "familiarized with the applications of principles by abundant "examples, and for the sake of getting his attention concentrated "on the broad leading principles of the language, many minutiæ, "many of those subtleties in which the scholar delights, must be "left unregarded. No opportunity will be lost of calling his "attention to any peculiarity of Latin which throws light on "English grammar, either by way of similarity or contrast, and "he will often be asked to compare an English derivative with its "Latin original, and account for the change of meaning. From "the first, efforts will be made to lead him to feel at home, so far "as a beginner can feel at home, in the strange tongue; he will be "encouraged to put simple sentences together, minor faults being "treated with indulgence so long as a meaning is fairly expressed. "Thus he will write nearly as much Latin as he reads, until he "has reached the point when he begins to read with ease; and he "will write it not only leisurely in the evening preparation, but "during school hours, at full speed, under the master's eye, some "sentences being dictated which he is to turn into Latin on "the spur of the moment. Accuracy is not to be neglected, but "readiness as well as accuracy is to be sought; it is better to "express one's thoughts in Latin or French with blunders, than "to go on fumbling and hesitating, and end by expressing nothing "at all. And in order to give this readiness it might be well "if a long disused method (prescribed, by the way, by the founders "of several Lancashire schools) were revived, and Latin taught in "some measure colloquially. Exercise books might be supplied, "containing the words and phrases needed for the common inter-"course of life, and then the teacher could from time to time "practise his pupils in using them to him and to each other.* At "first, of course, he would have to prepare himself specially to give "such teaching, but in a little the stiffness would wear off, and "the exercise of extempore writing and speaking would become "as easy to him as it would be pleasant to the boys, an agree-"able relief from the monotony of repeating prepared lessons." Those who proposed the scheme whose outlines I have just attempted to sketch did not, so far as I could gather, feel confident that it would fully meet the objections urged against the prominence of classics in commercial schools. But feeling that the existing state of things was unsatisfactory, they thought it at least worth while to try the experiment of giving the teaching of Latin a new and more generally useful character; of making it at once more philosophical—if such a term may be permitted—and more practical. They would probably desire to try it with boys of an

* Some have proposed to use the Colloquies of Erasmus for this purpose; others object that they are somewhat too strictly classical. They are prescribed by Bishop Pilkington in his statutes made for Rivington School. The statutes of many schools order that the scholars, or at least the highest class of them, shall constantly speak Latin in school hours.

age more advanced than that at which Latin is now commonly begun, and they admit that it can be tried successfully only by teachers abler and better trained then those now vouchsafed to beginners. With this last opinion anyone who has examined the classical schools will be disposed to agree. There are few subjects whose elements are less skilfully taught than Latin; few in which it would be easier to introduce notable improvements.

Ought Latin to be retained in commercial schools?

Whether Latin should be retained at all in the schools of a commercial community and taught to boys destined to enter an office or a warehouse at 15 or 16, is a question debated in Lancashire, as elsewhere, with much heat. There are two points of view from which its maintenance is condemned; that of 'practical' parents desiring only what has a pecuniary value, and that of the party among educationists which has espoused the cause of what are called 'modern studies.' Similarly there are two arguments—for to these two all the rest may be reduced—brought against it—that it is useless in itself; and that it takes up the time which had better be spent on French, or natural science, or English philology and literature. Without entering on a general discussion of the question, it may be proper to state shortly those aspects of it by which I was chiefly struck in Lancashire.

Different grounds whereon it is attacked.

Two classes of boys to be considered in discussing the question.

In settling whether Latin shall be taught in any school or set of schools, there are two classes of boys to be regarded, those who receive an education for professions up to 17 or 18 years of age, and those who quit school for business at 15. With regard to the former, or professional class, the question is comparatively simple. In several of the professions a fair knowledge of Latin is imperative; the clerical, for example, and all but the lowest branches of the scholastic. In others, *e.g.*, the medical and legal, this knowledge may be slighter; yet it cannot be wholly dispensed with. Moreover, as things stand at present, parents themselves belonging to the professional class generally desire a classical instruction for their boys, and would complain, not without reason, if the subject were wholly excluded from schools. It is plain, therefore, that in the chief school of all towns where the population is large enough to furnish a respectable number of such parents and of boys destined for professional life—*i. e.* towns, speaking roughly, of more than 10,000 people—Latin must be retained as a subject for those who desire it, whether or not it be enforced on all pupils.

The professional class.

Boys intended for business.

As regards boys who are to follow a commercial life, the question is far more complicated. We have to enquire not only what is the absolutely best system of training which the mind can receive up to 15 years of age, but also how far it is practically possible to give such training. The wishes of parents, themselves in great measure ill-educated persons, are an important element in the calculation.

Divers considerations on the question.

Worthlessness of a knowledge of the grammar only.

(1.) It is clear that a knowledge of Latin which does not go beyond the accidence, as is the case in many schools, is of little value,—*i. e.* of no more value than what can be attributed to the mere exercise of memory in getting the declensions and conjugations by heart.

Slight practical value of so much Latin only as is now commonly acquired up to 15.

(2.) It must further be admitted that the utility for any practical purpose of the Latin learnt by boys up to 15, is now very small. Few such are able to construe any Roman writer in later life, though they may remember the meaning of a word here and a word there. They have perhaps advanced so far as to read Virgil or Horace, but by 18 they could not do more than blunder through Cæsar; and at 25 they will remember little but some parts of the accidence, two or three rules, and a few of the commonest words.

To be helpful in learning other tongues, Latin must be well known.

(3.) Again, great as are the services which a knowledge of Latin renders to the student of French, Spanish, Italian, or any other Romance language, he must in order to derive any substantial benefit from it, be tolerably familiar with its vocabulary and quite familiar with its ordinary forms, else he will not, when the laws of phonetic mutation have been explained to him, recognize the Italian and French words in their changed aspect.

Testimony of schoolmasters: its bearing and worth.

(4.) The testimony of teachers, copious, and in the main unanimous as it is to the superiority of this language to all other subjects for drilling boys, rousing them up, and making them do better in their other subjects of instruction, must be received with some caution and reserve. They may be right in declaring as I have often heard them declare, that boys excused from Latin or Greek, and set to do extra arithmetic or French, make no greater progress in these studies than their companions who are working at classics as well, owing to the more robust mental discipline enjoyed by the latter. But there are other causes to which the phenomenon, admitting its existence, may be ascribed. Where the system of the school is classical, the best masters and the greatest energy are devoted to classical teaching, and the exceptional boys who do arithmetic or French in place of Latin and Greek are delivered over to some inferior hand. Besides, they are often by nature the duller boys, and as coming from the houses of less educated parents are altogether in a lower state of mental cultivation. To try the experiment fairly, it should be tried on boys of equal ability, receiving equally long and equally good tuition in the one and in the other set of subjects.

Alleged services of Latin in giving a sounder knowledge of English.

(5.) It is often said that a knowledge of Latin is of great service in enabling people to write and spell English correctly. This may be so when men are trained scholars, but I could not discover any marked difference between the spelling or the quality of English composition done by boys who had and boys who had not received classical instruction. Very few ever think of using their etymological knowledge in learning to spell, their teachers, one must suppose, not showing them how to do so.

Slight results of classical teaching are partly due to small size and imperfect organization of the existing schools.

(6.) On the other hand it may be remarked that although Latin, as at present taught in Lancashire, does not appear to perform those services to which its advocates point, this may possibly be due to circumstances in which the minor classical schools are placed. Boys enter them at every stage of progress, and must, owing to the want of a proper staff, be classed roughly together. If the grammar schools were considerably larger than they now

are, and if the pupils, instead of coming at all ages and from different systems of teaching, were as a rule to enter a preparatory department at eight and pass into the school itself at 10, to remain there till 15, it might be possible to give a very different account of the results of classical teaching.

Latin superior to English as vehicle of linguistic training.

(7.) Whatever may be the value of linguistic training as compared with scientific, it cannot be doubted that Latin is a far better medium of linguistic training than either English or French. In hearing a class examined in English grammar, even by practised teachers, I was struck by the comparative want of material in pure grammar, in which to exercise the learner's mind; a want which made it necessary to superadd what is called "analysis," and thus very often to pass out of grammar into logic. The absence of inflections in English makes it more difficult to present and illustrate some of the most important grammatical relations; and the generally plain and open structure of the language gives less occasion for the exercise of steady thought in unravelling the intricacies of a sentence and explaining its meaning according to known principles. The same objections apply in great measure to French also; and in some degree even to the more elaborately constructed German,—from neither of which, in the opinion of the most experienced and liberal-minded teachers whom I consulted, does there seem reason to expect results equal to those that may be obtained from Latin. They spoke, of course, of mental discipline only.

And to French.

Real source and meaning of the cry against Latin among the farming and commercial class.

(8.) Farmers and shopkeepers, as well as a fair proportion of the richer commercial class, protest against the teaching of Latin to their children, and this feeling is one of the chief difficulties in the way of its retention. It should be understood, however, from what the feeling arises. It does not, like the similar protest of the party among educationists mentioned above, express an opinion that there are other studies which the progress of society has made more important than that of the dead languages—the study of our own and other modern literatures and of the phenomena of the external world—and that to these should be given the time now devoted to Latin. Such a view recognizes, equally with that of the classicists, the ideal element in education—its function in strengthening, elevating, and purifying the mind. But the popular cry against Latin is a cry against the ideal element altogether. The shopkeeper cares as little for science or the study of Shakspeare as he does for Latin; he values education only as it tends to produce success in life, *i. e.*, the making of money quickly, and he desires to see whatever time is taken from "unpractical" studies given to penmanship, accounts, and book-keeping. Against such degradation the existence of Latin is at present a bulwark.*

* I asked, perhaps a hundred times or more, the farmers and tradespeople whom I met, whether they objected to Latin, and why. Their answers were always the same. The farmers said they didn't see what use Latin would be to a boy, though to be sure if he knew it he might be made a chemist. (If all the boys for whom this future has been imagined were to realize it, there would be more drug shops than beer shops in the country.) The tradesmen said they meant their sons to go to business, and wanted them to write a good hand and be quick at accounts. Asked whether they

Justice of the complaints against Latin as having injured commercial education.

(9.) The reason why this demand for a practical education is so loud, and why it has taken the special form of hostility to Latin, is chiefly to be found in the undue prominence hitherto given to Latin, and the consequent neglect of those branches of knowledge which mercantile life requires. If this just ground of complaint were removed, if arithmetic in particular were held in higher esteem by schoolmasters, and taught with the energy and skill which its practical importance deserves, the clamour would subside, and schools would be free to teach whatever other subjects appeared really the best—Latin, or mathematics, or history, or the sciences of nature.

Social prestige of Latin.

(10.) Latin enjoys at present an advantage over its rivals which, though adventitious, is not insignificant. It is the only study that has a distinct social value, being supposed to mark a man as having received a liberal education, and therefore in so far belonging (and having even in his youth belonged), to the more cultivated classes. There is therefore a certain number of parents, chiefly among the poorer professional men, who desire some classics for their sons, even though they may destine them for commercial life. And many who have risen into wealth from small beginnings may be found regretting their want of Latin, since it places them at a disadvantage in the society wherein they have come to move, and makes the acquisition of other branches of knowledge and the enjoyment of some forms of literature far more difficult.* Probably if they had learnt it in their youth they would have nearly forgotten it by middle life: still this is not quite the same, and to them seems very far from the same, as never to have learnt it at all.

Latin at present the only subject taught with thoroughness.

(11.) Whether English literature, modern languages, and the sciences of nature can be so taught as to afford a sound and robust mental discipline, is a point regarding which I did not see anything in Lancashire that could enable me to form a decided opinion. As yet, Latin is the only subject that is so taught.† Its very difficulty, and the impossibility of getting so far as to translate even a bit of Phædrus without some solid knowledge, oblige it to be studied thoroughly and exactly. Though some of the methods in use are old-fashioned, still teachers—that is, teachers in the higher class of schools, for the master from the Government training college seldom knows much about it—can teach it better than they can anything else, and do manage by its means to lay hold of the

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would object to a boy's learning Latin if he was made perfect in writing and accounts as well; they said they didn't know; Latin was a fine thing, no doubt, but the boy was to go to business. Asked again if they wanted him to know French; they answered, no, they didn't care, perhaps it might be of some use. Asked once more whether they would like him to learn natural science or English literature, they made no answer, not understanding the question. After such a dialogue repeated time after time till very weariness made me stop, it seemed quite plain that the hostility to Latin arises from a belief that it is irreconcileable with a commercial education. If reconciled, as it may be and in some schools has been, there is reason to believe that this hostility would disappear.

* Such instances, it need hardly be said, are not rare in Lancashire.

† I except, of course, mathematics in the few schools where it is handled with vigour.

boy's mind and give it a certain power of connecting facts and applying principles which it does not gain from any other study. French is generally taught in a slovenly way, and the teaching of history, geography, and divers branches of science is apt to degenerate into a mere exercise of memory upon isolated facts. The boy learns a little about many things, but seldom learns any one thing well.

Latin as connecting us with the past.

(12.) Some of my informants laid stress on another argument, which it may be well to mention, although it is far less applicable to the case of boys whose classical studies end at 15 than to that of those who pursue them further. Latin, say they, is valuable, not merely although it is unpractical, but because it is unpractical. "There is a positive advantage in teaching some-"thing unconnected with the present and its utilities—something "which carries the learner back into the past, and connects him "with the earlier ages of the world, and with those nations from "whom has descended so much of our civilization. To have read "even a little of the great writers of antiquity has an elevating "and ennobling effect on the mind, carrying it away from the "noise and dust of modern Europe, stimulating the imagination, "and opening up avenues of thought and study to which the "boy, even though he casts but a glance at them now, may in "after years return to enter and enjoy."

Danger of definitely severing classical from commercial schools.

(13.) No one doubts that Latin will, rightly or wrongly, continue for a long time to come to be studied in the chief schools of the country and by the sons of the richer people. To exclude it therefore from the bulk of the commercial schools, would be to erect a barrier between them and those above them—would, in fact, go far to establish a system of class education. Now such a system, to say nothing of its effects socially and politically, would be a serious injury to education itself, for since a knowledge of Latin would no longer be expected from the teacher in "middle-class" schools—as they would then be with reason called, the standard of his qualifications would fall even below its present level. The richer classes would not send their children to such schools, even in early boyhood, before the age when they are supposed to be fit to go from home. It would be much more difficult than it is now for a boy of talent to pass from such a school, when he had gone through its course, to one giving a higher education, since he would find himself at 14 or 15 thrown without any knowledge of Latin among boys who had been engaged on it for several years. Thus in every way would the severance between the higher and the lower education of the country become even more complete and more pernicious than it is at this moment.

General conclusion.

Desirable as it may on the whole appear, after balancing these arguments *pro* and *con*, to retain Latin in the commercial schools, it cannot be denied that there are serious difficulties to be encountered. It is not merely that time is wasted on Latin, for until teaching is much better than it is now, time will be wasted on any and every subject. But many parents have a peculiar

aversion to it, thinking that to it are sacrificed the practical attainments which they most value. And this feeling leads them to prefer the generally infirm teaching of the cheaper private schools to that of the grammar schools, which they suppose to be even more classical than they are. Hence it would be necessary, in retaining Latin, not only to make it in most endowed schools optional, but also to provide that it shall not interfere with the teaching of writing and arithmetic. If these be well taught, parents will care but little what else is taught. Private schoolmasters will of course do what is found most conformable to the wishes of those who support them. One or two are beginning to try the experiment of teaching natural science in the same way as Latin has been treated hitherto: if the experiment succeeds, a new light will be thrown on the question. But in these things it is the foundation schools that set the fashion, and the private schools that for the most part follow it; and it is therefore probable that if the example were set in grammar schools of giving along with classics a really efficient practical education, the tone and teaching of the private schools would experience a corresponding improvement. If grammar schools become, as they may become, as some have and as all ought to become, commercial as well as classical, private schools would tend to become classical as well as commercial.

XI.—*Greek.*

	Endowed Schools.	Private Schools.
Per-centage of schools teaching it - - -	47	22
Do. of boys learning it - - -	15	1

Greek.

Greek, as taught in Lancashire, may be dismissed in a few words. Less than half the schools that teach Latin teach Greek, and not a fourth of the boys who learn the one proceed to the other. The methods of teaching are very similar to those already described in the case of Latin, and whatever criticisms may be made upon the one might equally be made on the other. On the whole, however, Greek seems to be the better taught of the two, since its elements fall more frequently within the province of the head master and not of some inexperienced assistant; and a boy's progress in it is much more rapid, because he comes to it with a mind already disciplined, and more fit to grapple with the difficulties of a strange language.

Its maintenance generally despaired of.

The question as to whether it should be retained in schools not sending pupils to the universities is of no great practical importance in Lancashire, since it has virtually given way already to the demand for a short and practical education. Much less zeal seems to be displayed on its behalf than on that of its sister

tongue. Although Greek grammar is more elegant than Latin, and the language itself infinitely more rich and flexible, yet as the boy who comes to it has already obtained some grammatical training from Latin, it cannot be thought so necessary to give him that of a second dead language. It is therefore more to the purpose to inquire into its practical value as a language, *i. e.*, as the gate which gives entrance to a field of literature. The pupil may be said to have gained something like command of the language when he can read the New Testament in the original with tolerable ease; sufficiently well, that is, to correct the English version by it instead of merely using the English version as a "crib." Any knowledge short of this disappears so fast that it is of little value; for Greek, owing partly to the strangeness of the alphabet and partly to its having contributed fewer words to English, is forgotten even more readily than Latin. And this knowledge seems to be thought beyond the reach of boys who leave school at 15. Therefore Lancashire schoolmasters generally despair of making much of Greek, and, if they teach it at all, are prepared to waive it when a parent objects. They acknowledge the incomparable splendour of the literature which it contains to those who throw themselves into the study, but as a matter of fact they see that few of their boys can be made capable of doing so, and that fewer still will use the capacity. Thus, gradually and half unconsciously, they have permitted the teaching of Greek to slip away, or be confined only to two or three boys who may linger on at school after 16. Of course the classical schools, *par excellence*, such as the grammar schools of Manchester and Lancaster, Rossall school, and at Liverpool the Royal Institution and the upper school of the College, teach Greek as systematically as Latin, yet to fewer boys. Speaking of the commercial class generally, it may be said that they do not now learn even the rudiments of Greek either in endowed or in private schools.

Possibility of teaching Greek before Latin.

There is one question of much interest connected with this subject to which I must be content merely to refer in passing—the possible advantage of teaching Greek before Latin to boys who are to receive a complete classical education. Several schoolmasters, while urging the practical difficulties which would under existing arrangements attend such an experiment, admitted that the learner's progress might be much facilitated by this course. The Greek verbs are no doubt more troublesome than those in Latin, but otherwise the language is simpler, clearer, altogether easier and more graceful; and boys who have once overcome its mechanical difficulties find more to enjoy in Greek than in Latin authors. Very often Homer is the only classic, of all that a boy reads, for which he really cares. There is reason to wish, then, that some enterprising teacher who can afford to do so would try the experiment on a great scale, and see whether those boys who had been taught Greek only from 10 to 13 years of age, and Greek and Latin together afterwards might not turn out better scholars at 18 than their companions handled upon the now prevailing system.

XII.—*French.*

French.

The accompanying table will give some idea of the extent to which the study of French is pursued in Lancashire.

—	Endowed Schools.	Private Schools.
Per-centage of schools teaching it - - -	50	71
Do. of boys learning it - - -	22	29

It is what may be called a subject of the third order, not appearing at all in the cheaper schools, and in those of higher rank, both endowed and private, generally holding a subordinate position and considered, in point of charge, an extra. Twenty or thirty years ago its importance was much less recognized, and several of the first endowed schools would have been found neglecting it altogether. Although held in higher regard now, it is in very few schools what can be called a "testing subject"—one by which the efficiency of the teaching may be fairly judged, and hence it was only from time to time, and in schools where it was made prominent that I thought it necessary to set a paper in it. When the paper contained only pieces of French (previously unseen) to be turned into English, the results were generally creditable. There was often a good deal of inaccuracy in details, and a disposition to hazard random guesses, not merely at the meanings of words, but at constructions which a sound knowledge of the grammar would have sufficed to explain; but in general the substantial sense of the passage was caught, and rendered with tolerable readiness. Under good, if not brilliantly good teaching, a boy of 14, spending three hours a week upon the subject, ought, it would appear, to be able in two years' time to read an ordinary French book, such as the Henriade, or Lamartine, or Massillon, making out the sense sufficiently well for all practical purposes with little aid from a dictionary. When, however, a piece of English to be turned into French was also set, let it be never so easy, comparatively few of those who translated well were found to attempt it, and of these but few produced anything like a correct and exact—not to say idiomatic—version. Scarcely ever—even in the private schools which paid most attention to French—did I find boys whom the master considered capable of writing a French letter on a given subject. To compose is of course a far more difficult exercise than to translate; still it seemed to me that the difference between the capacities of the pupils in the one direction and in the other was even greater than it need have been; and that one might therefore conclude (1) that their facility of translation did not represent a really sound grammatical knowledge, and (2) that sufficient pains was not taken to accustom them to turn English into French at sight, under the eye of the master. The practice of doing exercises, however regular, does not seem to effect all that is needed; it is most useful in

Results of examination.

teaching boys one rule after another in succession; it does not cultivate readiness and spirit. The defects which struck me in the teaching of French in most schools were those which it was natural to look for, and which have been already noted by others. Two were conspicuous.

Defects noticeable in the teaching.

(1.) Both the teaching and the learning tend to be loose and inexact. French has so great a superficial likeness to English in its vocabulary and the structure of its sentences that boys can do a great deal by guessing or by making hasty and random inductions; their apparent ease in translation deceives and satisfies an ordinary teacher, who does not test them by frequent questioning on the grammar, and requiring them from time to time to analyse a sentence, and explain the meaning and construction of each clause and word. In learning Latin or any other language quite unlike his own, a boy is at more pains to remember an exact rule or principle, because he feels the need of it; and in translating he is almost forced to have a precise sense and a place even for the smallest words in the sentence. In French, finding that more can be done by the light of nature, he is more prone to walk by that light and do things in a slovenly way. When he has got a sort of meaning for a phrase, such as *Qu'est ce que c'est*, or *y a t'il*, he leaves its component parts unexamined and perhaps misunderstood.

Usually exact.

(2.) The teaching of French is usually unintelligent. Rules —often minute rules with long lists of exceptions—are given to be learnt, and exercises are written upon them, while little or nothing is said to explain their reason or show their relation to some more general rule. Points of mere detail, subtle distinctions in the use of synonyms, little delicacies of idiom are dwelt on at as great length, and impressed with as much solemnity on the learner's mind as the most fundamental and universal principles of the language. Altogether there is a tendency to lay too much stress on idioms and pronunciation, and too little on the main outlines of etymology and syntax. To be a perfect French scholar a man must learn these idioms, but the case of a schoolboy is different. Some can hardly be remembered without constant colloquial practice, which he cannot have. The labour of acquiring them is considerable, and as the hours allotted to French altogether are but few, the time given to them is taken from the weightier matters of the law—a thorough mastery of the grammar. Yet most French teachers measure their pupils' progress by their power of trotting out the idioms. One cause of these defects seems to be that French is a living language, and in teaching living languages men are apt to hesitate between two modes of treatment, the strictly grammatical and the colloquial. Each has its merits. The colloquial is the pleasanter and, especially for young boys, the easier, but, except in the hands of a first-rate teacher, it is apt to become superficial. The grammatical is surer in the end, but then it must be handled thoroughly, and it must consist in making the leading principles of etymology and syntax clear, instead of burdening the memory with details. French teachers, as a matter "a broad robust training to the mind of a boy of 14. French,

And unintelligent.

Extravagant importance attributed to knowledge of the "idioms."

Causes of these defects.

of habit, choose to teach the grammar, but they seldom succeed in making the learner exact, and they endeavour to supplement his want of accuracy by running over a great deal of ground in hasty translations, by giving a number of petty phrases to be learnt, and by encouraging the boy in the notion that French is a thing which may be in a measure "picked up," without systematic study. If truly colloquial teaching can be given, it will have its value, and that a high one; the misfortune is that the possibility of colloquial practice, if the pupil should go to France, becomes an excuse for the slovenly treatment of the grammar, without a grasp of which he will make little progress in France or anywhere else.

Frequent incompetence of the teachers.

A more serious source of weakness however is to be found in the character of those by whom French is taught. Many schoolmasters —those especially who are indifferent classical scholars, have a notion that any Frenchman can teach his own language. Others who know better find it exceedingly hard to procure competent Frenchmen—men possessed of a sound philological knowledge and of skill in teaching. Such qualities are of course to be found, more often perhaps in the persons of Germans, Poles, or Hungarians who have lived in France, than of born Frenchmen—for a good Frenchman unwillingly expatriates himself—but they are so rare that I heard some experienced schoolmasters declaring it better to search for an Englishman who has a good grammatical knowledge of French, or to take the teaching of it into their own hands. An Englishman, they say, has more control over his class, and having learnt the language himself, can better understand its difficulties and explain them to the learner. These advantages, however, though they may compensate for his comparative want of familiarity with the idioms, and his inferior pronunciation, do not inspire that confidence in the breast of a British parent which is produced by a foreign name with the prefix "M."

Views entertained by schoolmasters respecting the educational value of French.

The teachers and others whom I consulted were almost unanimous in their low estimate of French as a means of mental training. "Its likeness to English," said they, "though perhaps "greater in appearance than in reality, enables boys to learn it "easily, and disposes them to learn it superficially. Owing "to the simple and uniform structure of its sentences, as "well as to the want of inflections, it illustrates comparatively "few grammatical principles and demands much less thought "and ingenuity from the learner than does Latin. In trans- "lating from it into English, or, conversely, from English "into French, he is not obliged to recast the thought of the "original, recognizing and preserving identity of substance "under a diversity of form; he may keep the order and render "word for word as he could never do in translating from Latin "or Greek. There are, it is true, peculiarities of syntax, and "delicacies of idiomatic usage in French as exact and, in their "way, as graceful as any which the ancient languages supply; "but these are somewhat in the nature of subtleties, fit rather to "exercise the discernment of the advanced student than to give

" therefore, though a valuable adjunct to Latin, cannot supply " its place."

There may be in these views some tinge of prejudice in favour of the old established studies; and the comparative ease of French, as I heard an eminent teacher remark, if it is in one respect a drawback, is in another an advantage, since boys who would never make anything of Latin may make something of French. But at present the balance of opinion seems to incline strongly against French as a disciplinary substitute for Latin, and if it be urged by some that French only waits for better teachers to develope its capabilities as a means of intellectual training, others will reply that better (*i.e.*, more highly paid and specifically educated) teachers will also handle Latin in so much more efficient a manner as to make it possible to give both languages to boys who have now time for one only.

XIII.—*German.*

	Endowed Schools.	Private Schools.
Per-centage of schools teaching it - - -	13	16
Do. of boys learning it - -	1·8	3

German. German, as this table shows, holds very much the same position towards French as Greek does towards Latin. It is taught in fewer schools, and in those to a far smaller number of boys. As it is also considerably more difficult, at least to beginners, you will easily conceive that it was very seldom that I found a class who would undertake to translate a piece of easy German prose (previously unseen) into English. English into German was, of course, out of the question. When I examined, therefore, it was in most cases only orally. There is nothing that calls for special remark in the nature of the teaching, which generally seemed good so far as it went. This may probably be owing to the fact that the German teachers in this country are more frequently men of real cultivation and ability than the French teachers; in so far, therefore, German has a better chance of getting justice done to it. As to the superiority of German to French as a means of mental training there is a general consensus among teachers, some holding that on this ground it is to be preferred as a substitute for Latin (where Latin cannot be taught), despite its supposed slighter practical utility. Whether French is really more useful than German may be doubted. Lancashire does more trade with German speaking nations than with France, and the immense numbers of Germans resident in Manchester* and Liverpool has promoted the growth of a taste for German literature, German songs, and so

* In Manchester one may sometimes get into an omnibus full of people, and hear nothing but German spoken.

forth. For the purposes of scientific study it would seem that there is little to choose between the two languages; he who reads mathematics will chiefly use the one, while the chemist or physicist finds more treasures concealed in the other.

XIV.—*Italian and Spanish.*

Italian.

Italian and Spanish, although for commercial purposes not less useful than French, are not systematically taught in any boys' schools known to me,* and in very few girls' schools. So far as I remember, it was only in the Roman Catholic convent schools, two or three of which I visited, that I found Italian. At Stonyhurst College there is sometimes a class in Italian; at the time of my visit it was not at work. It is, perhaps, to be regretted that teachers do not more often attempt to interest promising boys in the study of one of these languages, which, to those who are already fair Latin scholars, and have been shown the laws of phonetic mutation, present little or no difficulty. I have heard it maintained, with much apparent reason, that it would be as easy to teach French to a class of boys who have already made good progress in Latin, by educing Italian from Latin, and then French from Italian, as it is now to teach French in the first instance.

XV.—*Natural Science and Natural History.*

Natural science and natural history.

Under the term natural science, I mean to include astronomy, natural philosophy or physics (*i.e.*, mechanics, statics, pneumatics, hydrostatics, &c.) and chemistry; under natural history, physiology, zoology, botany, geology, mineralogy. The accompanying table shows what amount of instruction is given in these subjects.

Natural Science.†	Endowed Schools.	Private Schools.
Per-centage of schools teaching it - - -	21	33
Do. of boys learning it - - -	11	14

Natural History.†	Endowed Schools.	Private Schools.
Per-centage of schools teaching it - - -	17	20
Do. of boys learning it - - -	10	12

* I ought perhaps to mention the case of a private boarding school, which offered by its prospectus to teach "Italian, French, Spanish, German, music, organ, and pianoforte," one guinea per quarter. No parent seemed to have availed himself of the offer.

† No reliance is to be placed upon these statistics, especially under the heading "Natural History," for many schools who teach only some catechism of general knowledge, or give now and then an object lesson, or use as their reading book a set of "Tales about Animals," construe such instruction as the teaching of Natural Science or Natural History.

Science, therefore, is not altogether neglected, but it is quite recently that it has been introduced, and its place is at present an unsettled and unsatisfactory one. In very few schools does it form a part of the regular curriculum; there is often, therefore, a want of proper apparatus and material, and the boys who learn are set to do so at odd times, or perhaps only once or twice in the week. Hence the difficulty of comparing it with the old established branches of study, and the impossibility of gauging its educational result upon the mind. If it seems to be known in an inexact and careless way, this may be due to irregular teaching and to the absence of proper encouragement in the way of prizes, and so forth. If, on the other hand, it is popular among boys, this may be because it has not yet been tightened into a systematic discipline. Thus, although seldom losing an opportunity of having classes examined in any department of science they might have been at work on, or of questioning them myself, so far as my knowledge of the matter in hand might permit it, I found that, after all, the materials were scarcely sufficient to warrant a clear and positive conclusion.

Natural science is at present taught in three ways.

Methods and manners of teaching natural science.

(1.) In a very few schools—the only two that at this moment occur to me are the Liverpool Institute and the Mechanics Institute School at Manchester—it is, to a good many boys, an important part of their daily work. Chemistry has in both these schools been selected as the most suitable branch for a rigorous and protracted study. It is, of course treated practically and the boys are accustomed to analyse for themselves. An examination proved them able to do this neatly and correctly, explaining the steps of the process as they went on; they answered well when questioned on the more theoretical parts of chemistry, and had a tolerable notion of the nature of inductive proof. The training, so far as it went, had been thorough and intelligent, and had tended to form good mental habits.

Systematic and protracted study.

(2.) More frequently, yet in not more than eight or ten schools in all, mostly private schools, I found existing a study of the subject which was regular, though in quantity very limited. Physics or chemistry, or sometimes physiology, was taught to a select class once or twice a week, sometimes by a teacher who came for that purpose alone. No very definite mental result was produced in such cases; the progress of the pupil was too slow for the subject to lay firm hold on his mind, and his answers usually showed that he was not at home even in its elements. Nevertheless, the time spent had not been lost; the boys seemed to like the study, finding in it a relief from constant work at languages, and they learnt enough to make it much easier for them to come back to it in after life.

Regular but very limited study.

(3.) In many of the more expensive schools lectures on scientific topics are delivered from time to time, illustrated by experiments, or by the display of minerals, plants, or other natural objects. Sometimes the lecturer requires from the boys an account of what he has told them on the occasion last preceding, or throws out

Occasional lectures.

a question on the cause of the phenomenon which he is displaying to them; sometimes he is content to talk steadily on and shew his show. The thing is always welcomed by boys, who value the giddy pleasure of the eyes all the more when it supersedes regular lessons; and though it is sometimes done only for the sake of form, and to make an impression on parents, it can hardly fail to be of service. It opens the boys' minds to a world all around them of which they had not thought before; it may dispose them to inquire into the causes of common things, and now and then, falling on a soil apt to receive it, it creates a taste which may in after life ripen into genuine scientific capacity. Real mental training is of course out of the question, although an adroit teacher from a Government training college, will often elicit even from little boys answers which surprise and delight the casual stranger, who has not learnt by experience how superficial and fleeting a knowledge they represent.

Catechisms and manuals.

(3.) Besides these three legitimate methods of teaching science, all valuable, though in very unequal degrees, there is a fourth wholly foolish and useless. I mean the custom of setting boys to learn catechisms and manuals of science, or rather of "the sciences,"—for they are seldom content with one or two—without giving them any illustrations or proofs addressed to their senses, and often without even an explanation of the terms used. It is needless to say that the existence in any school of such a practice, which did no more than enable the boys to gabble over a set of long Greek words, was a sure proof either of the ignorance or the charlatanism of its master.

Remarks on the teaching of natural science as now practised.

As has been said already, the materials which the Lancashire schools afforded were too scanty to enable me to give a criticism upon the methods in use for the teaching of the natural sciences, and the peculiar defects or dangers incident to it. There are but two remarks which I can make, and they are perhaps almost too obvious to be worth making.

Tendency to appeal to memory alone.

(1.) There is a certain tendency in such teaching to become superficial. A great number of facts are placed before the mind or the eye of the boy. Each in itself is simple: he has only to see the phenomenon or to hear of it and believe its existence; and therefore he does not of himself exert any thought upon the matter. A teacher of real skill will be found drawing attention to the connexion between the facts shown; questioning his scholars on the cause of a phenomenon or the possible conclusions they may draw from it; requiring them, it may even be, sometimes to anticipate or suggest a step in the experiment, showing them how to guess round and draw near to and work out the true interpretation of the facts. Such a method exercises thought and forms the habit of inquiry, but some teachers think it too troublesome, and some others have not themselves knowledge sufficient to pursue it. Hence the teaching of science is frequently only a pleasant recreation and an exercise of memory, nothing more. And memory herself is a bad guardian of those things which are at the first apprehended without effort.

(2.) Secondly. Even among those who are at pains to make the pupil understand the phenomena and their connexion, some do not fully realize the need of making him active—a doer, or maker,* or finder, instead of a passive recipient of facts and explanations. If they teach chemistry, they are content with showing experiments, or going through an analysis, instead of making the boy either perform them, if that be safe, or direct the steps of the process. Or if botany or geology be the subject, they display a collection of plants, a museum of minerals and fossils, and do not think of setting the boys to observe and collect for themselves. Tendency to let the learner remain passive.

Teachers are not agreed which of the natural sciences it is best to teach, nor whether it is better to teach one only thoroughly, or the elements of two or three. The balance of authority seems to be in favour of chemistry, or of pneumatics and hydrostatics; they require a more elaborate apparatus than mechanics, but are said to be more generally interesting to the young. Of the branches of natural history, it seems to be admitted that botany is the easiest and the pleasantest, since the materials are abundant, and the classification depends for the most part on matters of structure which the pupil can examine for himself, with the aid only of a knife and a pocket lens. In great towns there is sometimes a difficulty in setting the boys to gather plants, yet a good deal may be done by taking them out from time to time on an excursion into the country. In the case of geology, even more depends upon the locality. In flat alluvial districts, where there are no natural sections to be seen, and no cliffs or quarries whence fossils can be extracted, it is hard to let geology be to the learner a real science of observation. Everywhere it is a study somewhat more difficult than botany; wider in its scope, and needing a more mature mind to grasp its principles. Physiology is popular among some teachers, who insist on its practical value, as teaching the need of cleanliness, pure air, and so forth. As an engine of mental training it seemed to be less valuable than either geology or botany. The boy cannot, as in those sciences, observe and classify for himself: most of the facts which he is to know must be told to him. He cannot, except to a very slight extent, investigate physiological phenomena for himself; he cannot even follow the description and explanation of them without some knowledge of other sciences, and primarily of chemistry; he is therefore apt to get the subject up from a manual, exercising his memory on the facts, but neither his intelligence nor his observation. For these reasons I found several able teachers discouraging the study of physiology, except by way of occasional lectures upon it, and preferring to it chemistry or physics on the one hand, botany or geology on the other. As for those facts, they said, which a man should know about his own body and the laws of its physical wellbeing, a good teacher will easily find an opportunity of telling his class whatever is most comprehensible and most useful. Which branch of science is it best to teach. Natural history. Botany. Geology. Physiology.

* Of course it is only where some branch of science is systematically taught, and taught to boys of 14 or 15, that this can be properly done.

Zoology.

Zoology supplies beautiful materials for the teaching of the principles of classification, and may be found agreeably treated in some schools. The objection to it is that less can be done by direct observation than in botany: the teacher must trust to pictures and now and then a skeleton or two.

Educational value of natural science and natural history.

As respects the educational value of natural science generally, and the place which it ought to hold in the school curriculum, I spared no endeavour to ascertain the views not only of teachers but of all such experienced and judicious persons as I had the good fortune to meet in Lancashire. Those views, it need hardly be said, were very various, and often irreconcileable; nevertheless, a careful scrutiny brought certain points of agreement to light, and made it possible to feel that several conclusions had been sufficiently well established. The substance of these conclusions I shall attempt to state shortly.

Arguments for introducing them.

The introduction of natural science and natural history into schools is urged upon three grounds:

(1.) Their practical utility.

1. Firstly, the practical utility of a knowledge of these subjects, more especially as a preparation for certain trades and professions. Thus mechanics will be valuable to an engineer, chemistry to a farmer, or a bleacher, or a dyer, geology to a farmer or to those who are concerned with mines. The value of such special education would not be anywhere greater than in Lancashire, where so large a population is employed in mining and manufacturing industry. But it should be remembered that after all this would be to give a special or professional rather than a general education; that the number of boys who need it would be, except in the greatest schools, too small to employ a specially qualified teacher; and that it is a pity, if a boy's education must stop at 15, not to let it be all consecrated to that general cultivation of his powers which will be neglected in after life. A boy, my informants added, will learn far better in the trade or profession itself than he can learn at school, the details of its practice: if, therefore, we teach him science at school, it should be rather for the sake of giving him a true conception of science, and enabling him to pursue his future occupation in something better than a narrowly empirical rule-of-thumb fashion.

(2.) Importance of interesting boys who show no aptitude for language.

And of implanting tastes that may bear fruit in after life.

Secondly, their power to create tastes and interests. In every class there are boys whom the ordinary system of linguistic teaching fails to engage or lay hold on; these, or some of these, might be attracted by science; their love of rambling might be spent in botanical or geological expeditions, their constructive faculty, as displayed so often in the shaping of boats, might induce them to take to mechanics. Furthermore, it is urged, the great majority even of those boys who have gone through school with credit are found by the time they have attained manhood, listless-minded and destitute of intellectual tastes or pleasures; they are therefore driven to fall back upon the commonplace enjoyments of domestic life, if not upon more questionable means of recreation. If they had learnt something, though it were but little, at school about the phenomena of external nature, they might have resumed the study

afterwards, choosing the branch to which their tastes inclined them, and have found it a pleasant as well as a useful resource in hours of leisure. There seems reason to believe that there is much force and truth in these representations. Those who have attempted to teach science bear witness, that although the boys who do best in it are generally those who do best in classics also, it lays hold on a certain number who oppose a dull resistance to all instruction in languages—and above all to the writing of Latin verses—makes them willing to work, and renders them useful members of the school community.

Thirdly, their value as tending to form certain intellectual habits, and exercise certain intellectual faculties. (3.) Mental discipline and culture obtainable from these studies.

Under this head several particular benefits of the study are enumerated. First of all, it cultivates the observing powers, not only quickening the perceptions and accustoming the boy to use his senses upon all objects, but also showing him how to observe, giving him clearness, precision, the ability to note minute differences. (*a*) Power of observation. Then in the second place he is taught by it how to classify; to know what points to fix upon as determining the relations of individuals, and of species to one another; to carry in the mind a whole system of classification and apply it at short notice, referring a substance, or animal, or plant, as the case may be, first to a wide class or order, then to a subordinate group, then to a genus, then to a species. (*b*) Power of classification. To do this readily and accurately is to have gained mental capacities of conspicuous value, not for the purposes of science only, but for study of every kind. These two arts, observation and classification, are perhaps best taught by means of some branch of natural history,—botany, zoology, geology, and so forth; the two which remains to be mentioned belong rather to chemistry and physics. In conducting or following experiments in these sciences, in examining the arguments by which their main principles have been established, the nature of inductive reasoning is learnt better than in any other way, the mind is trained to disengage general principles from a multitude of phenomena, to weigh proof and see its exact bearing upon the point in question; to carry on its investigations with a suspended judgment, keenly watching for a gleam of light from any quarter, calling nothing impossible, yet accepting nothing till the evidence collected is enough to put it beyond doubt. Such mental habits, though they may need to be supplemented by discipline of another kind, must in themselves be of the highest value. (*c*) Inductive ratiocination.

Lastly, a peculiar stimulus is held to be communicated to the mind by these studies, the stimulus of inquiry. To have been taught to find objects of science in the common sights of the external world; to know, for instance, what is the chemical process by which combustion takes place; to notice in taking a journey the flora or geological structure of the country traversed, is enough to form the habit of looking upon everything as raw material for scientific investigation, of inclining the intelligence to seek in and for all phenomena a reason, or cause, or law. (*d*) The habit of inquiry.

As against these admitted merits of the study, a great many objections were urged which need not be enumerated here. Some Objections urged.

dwelt on the expense of the apparatus needed for teaching science by experiment, others thought that the processes of reasoning involved in chemistry, for instance, or physics, had too little variety in them to make them comparable, as a means of discipline, with those which the study of languages supplies; others, again, denied the possibility of teaching science philosophically to boys under 15 or 16,—the facts, they said, might be easily acquired, but a comprehension of the principles, and of the nature of the inductive method, was within the reach only of some mature minds. All my informants, the advocates not less than the opponents of these studies, agreed that good teachers of natural science were at present scarcely to be found. Those whose knowledge of the special subjects makes them competent are not numerous; much more, then, is there a want of men who unite to such knowledge a proficiency in the art of teaching, and a comprehensive general culture.

Want of competent teachers.

General conclusion.

The general conclusion to which all that I saw and heard, seemed to point was this, that there was a case made out not for substituting the study of science for that of languages and of mathematics, but of giving it a place beside them. How far this can be done in the case of each individual school must depend on its organization and character; its staff of teachers; the length of time during which boys remain in it. It may perhaps be right to make science the substantial part of the training of boys who show an inaptitude for classics. It may be proper to let all boys have at least one year, during which they shall take up the study seriously, and learn thoroughly the elements, even if only the elements, of some one of its branches. But it seems to be at any rate clear that no one should go from school at 15 or 16, for whom nothing has been done, either to cultivate the faculties of observation, or impart some intelligent interest in the great world of nature that lies all around him. Even occasional lectures, if they are made anything more than a display of pictures and experiments, may effect something towards so desirable an end. The chief obstacle in the way is the smallness of schools, which makes it hard to organize special classes and support special teachers;* and still more perhaps the want of competent teachers themselves—of men who while they know science well, know also enough of other subjects to understand how scientific teaching should be made to play into the general work of a school. Until such men have been found and have been at work for some time, it cannot be thought that the experiment of giving science a place in education has been fairly tried.

XVI.—*Drawing.*

—	Endowed Schools.	Private Schools.
Per-centage of schools teaching it - - -	58	64
Do. of boys learning it - - -	24	30

* Visiting teachers are to some extent employed now going from one school to another, in the same town, but this is not a satisfactory system; they know little of the boys and cannot take much interest in the general success of the school.

Drawing.

The number of boys learning drawing in Lancashire is somewhat greater than would appear from this table, because some instead of taking it in their own school, go for it to the Government schools of art, a good many of which are scattered over the county. The teachers of these Government schools often employ their spare time in giving lessons in the better class of grammar and private adventure schools (the lower class neglecting drawing altogether). Their method of teaching is in conformity with the rules issued by the Science and Art Department; some people complain of it as a little tedious at first, but it is admitted to be the most rational, and in the end the most successful that has yet been proposed. It is of course only in schools of a higher stamp that this new system prevails, according to which, drawing from real objects, or, as it is called, from the round, is made the chief thing. Many of the inferior establishments retain the old fashion of setting boys to copy only from the flat, *i.e.* from the drawings or pictures of others, perhaps from engravings or lithographs, leaving nature quite out of their reckoning. If the things to be copied are really good, the pupil may possibly have his taste refined in the process, and acquire some manual dexterity; but he knows no more of nature than he did before; he has not learnt to see; he is powerless to represent a building or a landscape. For all practical purposes he might as well have never learned to draw at all, but the object of the teacher is satisfied, for the boy has an elaborate piece of work to carry home to his parents, in which he would find it hard to recognize, under the touches of his master, any lines that can be fairly called his own. So far as my knowledge goes, this vicious style of teaching exists in about one half of the schools wherein drawing is taught. It is on the wane; but it would be very desirable to do anything that can be done to quicken its extinction. Most parents and many schoolmasters have still the notion that what Aristotle says of the works of artists is true of the works of boys, and that that which is precious is the picture itself, produced or supposed to be produced by the boy from a copy, not his capacity to produce one from nature. When, therefore, they see a drawing or a painting with their son's name written in the corner, they are satisfied. To the practical value of the art, and to the incidental good effect of its study on the faculties of observation and on the taste, they are as yet hardly awake. Hence drawing is left in comparative neglect—a neglect the more to be regretted that its pursuit need not seriously interfere with that of the more severe studies, since it calls out different faculties from those they employ, and is, after them, rather a relaxation than a labour.

Old method of copying from the flat only.

XVII.—*Music.*

Music.

Music is taught in very few schools, and is of course ranked as an extra. Desirable as it may be that a taste for it should be more widely diffused, it seems impossible to find a place for the study of the pianoforte or violin among the more pressing calls on a boy's time. Singing, however, might very well be taught much more extensively than it is now, especially by way of relaxation

to younger boys, on whose powers of attention to their severer studies it is not well to impose a long-continued strain.

XVIII.—*Book-keeping.*

Book-keeping.

Seldom well taught.

Its utility.

It is only in town schools, and chiefly in private schools, that this subject is taught; and the teaching is of so slovenly a character that it might almost as well be expunged. Little or nothing seems to be done to explain the principles of the art; the teacher, who has seldom any practical knowledge of commercial life, merely sets the boy to copy out specimen books from some manual, looks at the caligraphy, and shows him how to get the entries in their right places. Parents, it is supposed, set a high value on the thing; but most of the merchants whose opinion I inquired answered that they did not care much whether a boy entering their office knew anything about it or not, the system pursued in one office differing from that of another. Others, however, while admitting that this was true as things stood, denied that it would be so if book-keeping were really well taught by clear-headed men who knew something of business. There are, they said, certain general scientific principles common to all methods of book-keeping, and a boy who has mastered these will learn more quickly and work more correctly the method of any one office. It is not the teaching that is useless, but the present bad teaching. I had reason to believe this view to be a sound one; the only question, therefore, is how far room can be made for book-keeping among the general work of a school. In large and well-organized schools it seems possible to do this; in small ones hardly so, since the proportion of boys wishing to learn it is seldom considerable.

XIX.—*Religious Knowledge.*

Religious knowledge.

Indifference of parents.

Religious knowledge (*i.e.* Scripture history and the rudiments of dogmatic theology) is more frequently a regular branch of instruction in endowed than in private schools. In the former it is generally prescribed by rules; in the latter it is taught or not, just as the master pleases. Parents, I was assured, seldom or never ask for it; they do not care how much or how little of it is given; nor whether it is undogmatic or dogmatic; nor, if dogmatic, what the particular dogmas are. No testimony could be clearer or more unanimous than that which private schoolmasters gave as to the absence of any difficulty caused by the presence in their schools of children of different creeds.

Results of examination.

In a good many of the schools where the subject was taught, I examined the children in it, chiefly in Bible history, but sometimes also in the doctrines contained in the formularies which they learnt. The result was certainly disappointing. It was impossible not to think that those who contend so ardently for "distinctive" religious teaching would modify their views if they knew how little any theological teaching comes to in practice. There is little acquaintance with any but the commonest Scripture narratives, such as those of the lives of Joseph and Daniel, and the birth of our Lord. Even in these, strange misconceptions are

common, and that not among young children only. In particular, very few have any notion of the succession of events; Moses, Nebuchadnezzar, and the Apostle Paul are separated in their minds by no interval of time. Want of any notion of chronology.

As respects doctrine, I found in many schools a creditable knowledge of the words of the formulary from which instruction had been given, but scarcely ever, except in senior classes, and seldom even there, the slightest idea of their meaning. The schoolmasters were themselves well aware of this; some shrugged their shoulders, others remarked on the difficulty, which will not be questioned, of making boys understand technically worded expressions of metaphysical conceptions, and ventured to hope that at some future period the meaning of the phrases they had learnt would dawn upon them. Some few thought it best to require only the Creed, the Lord's Prayer, and the Ten Commandments, to be committed to memory, drawing from the words of Scripture itself, as occasion offered, whatever further doctrinal and moral teaching it seemed possible to give with real benefit to the boy's mind and conscience. Dogma not grasped.

It must, I fear, be admitted—teachers themselves often do admit it—that religious instruction, as given in schools, usually fails to produce any perceptible effect on the moral character of those who receive it. Various causes are assigned for this. Some persons blame the teachers, saying that they hurry through the subject in a perfunctory way, being more anxious to please parents by commercial teaching, or to gain university distinctions by the classical or mathematical performances of their pupils Others complain that the Church Catechism, owing to the length of some of its paragraphs, and the somewhat difficult and antiquated language in which it is couched, is very ill suited for an elementary manual of theology. This would make it all the more necessary for the teacher to explain its phrases, connect it with the words of Scripture, and trace the relation between the doctrines of Christianity and the life of man in the world as a moral being. But this, it is to be feared, is very rarely done. The words of the Church Catechism are looked upon as possessing some sort of mystic efficacy—an efficacy which inspires little reverence, for they are gabbled over in the most unbecoming fashion—but which makes them accepted as a substitute for real religious teaching. Causes of the slight practical results of religious teaching

There is, again, a third party which, objecting in principle to the giving of systematic religious instruction in school, declares that its failure is just what might have been expected. Religion, say they, is an affair not of the head but of the heart; to teach Christian doctrine as a lesson among other lessons is to destroy the boy's reverence for it; to lose the best chance of influencing him by appeals to his conscience; to make him regard the whole subject with that distaste which most boys feel for what they have to learn on pain of punishment. It is proper, say they, to read the Bible, and make remarks upon it, but it should never be turned into a task.

These persons, however, as well as all my other informants, admitted that in a boarding school religious teaching must be viewed under a somewhat different light. The boarding school master stands towards his pupils in the place of a parent, and must instruct and care for them accordingly. He must also be permitted to do so freely, respecting, of course, the religious feelings of boys who do not belong to his own communion, but giving without constraint or reservation such doctrinal teaching as he himself holds true. Such is the plan now generally applied in boarding establishments, and applied, so far as I could discover, with sufficiently satisfactory results. I found Nonconformist boys boarding with Church of England clergymen, and Church of England boys boarding with Nonconformists. In neither set of cases did difficulties seem to have arisen. In Lancashire, at least, proselytizing is the last thing schoolmasters are likely to address themselves to; firstly, because they are too honourable; secondly, because they are too worldly wise; thirdly, because they are too much imbued by what some people call catholic toleration, and others latitudinarian indifference.

C. Remarks on existing Methods and Arrangements.

Touching the educational organization of the Lancashire schools in general, and the methods of teaching to be found in them, I have little to say which has not been said already in describing the condition of such separate subjects of instruction. One would expect a good deal of light from comparing the arrangements of so many different establishments; but there is, on the whole, surprisingly little variety in those arrangements, and a disappointing want of originality in the ideas of the schoolmasters themselves. It is true that they have no great opportunity of carrying out original ideas if they had the wish; for the grammar school master is fettered by tradition and trustees, and the private schoolmaster dreads the imputation of eccentricity and the ignorant timidity of parents.

The teaching in most schools not searching: affecting the better boys only.

"The great fault of our teaching," said a private teacher, himself a man of conspicuous ability, "is that it reaches only the better "boys of a class, and makes no impression on the idle and the dull. "It is in this respect more than any other that our schools fall "below those of France and Germany, where something is done "for everybody." The truth of this remark cannot fail to strike everyone who examines a class, even in our well-taught schools. The oral answering is left to be done by four or five boys out of 20 or 30. It is only where the teaching is shockingly bad that

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* Three cases of boarding schools occur to me, in the first of which the head master was a member of the Society of Friends, and one-third of the boarders belonged to the Church of England; in the second the master was an Independent and half the boys Church of England; in the third the master a Baptist, and a considerable proportion—the exact numbers I do not know—Church of England. The cases of Nonconformist boys boarding with masters who belonged to the Church of England were even more numerous.

ten or twelve per cent. of the pupils cannot do a really good paper in arithmetic; it is only where it is exceptionally and strikingly good that forty per cent. do a respectable one.

This fault is commonly charged chiefly on the great schools, where it is indeed more noticeable, since the contrast between the upper and lower ends of a class is more striking. But it is just as much present in most of the smaller schools, since it is nothing more than the expression of the fact that teaching is seldom searching. It profits greatly those who are naturally clever or diligent, and willing to use it; it runs like water off a duck's back from the heavy mass of indifference which all schools contain. Most schoolmasters attribute the defect to the want of a sufficiently large staff to give individual teaching and bring up the laggards;* some few thought it might be lessened, if not removed, by the adoption of some of those plans of teaching in use on the continent, by which a whole class is made to do the same work at the same moment. It is admitted that English teachers, as compared with their French and German brethren, seldom understand how to use paper, except indeed by setting exercises, which they look over themselves afterwards, a dismally tedious process.

Equally serious in small and in large schools.

2. Many teachers attribute the slow progress of the boys and want of thoroughness in their knowledge, to their learning too many things at once. Their minds are so much distracted between different studies, and the time given to each is so short, that they cannot take firm hold of any. I was greatly struck by the truth of this in looking at what is called the "weekly time-table," by which school-work is regulated. An ordinary boy of 12 or 13 is learning at the same time Latin and English grammar, spelling, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, Scripture, Euclid, algebra, French, and, it may happen, also book-keeping and drawing.

Tendency to learn too many different subjects at the same time.

The "weekly time-table."

Latin comes, it may be, on five mornings in the week; arithmetic on four; geography on two; history on two; French on two. Then there are four hours in the afternoon given to writing; two to religious knowledge; two to spelling; two to English grammar and analysis; one to drawing; one to book-keeping. How is a boy to keep all these things from jostling one another in his little head? how is he to throw himself into any one of them, and become sufficiently absorbed by it to make real progress? Let us suppose an energetic and well-educated man of 30 sitting down once in the week to study Welsh or the differential calculus for an hour's time; how far would he have got at the year's end? At the University, candidates reading for honours find it their best plan to work at only one book or subject at a time, fill their minds with it, make themselves masters of it, and then pass on to another. Yet what we do not expect from a grown man we expect from

* The question is often asked how many boys one master can deal with, and receives, of course, the most various answers. So far as I could see, it is impossible to fix any number, so much depends (*a*) on the state of preparation in which boys enter a school; (*b*) on their discipline and good order; (*c*) on the nature of the subject taught; and (*d*) on the skill of the teacher. I was often surprised to find what large classes (upwards of 40 boys) a good teacher can manage and carry on tolerably well abreast.

the untrained mind of a boy, who has himself no eagerness to learn. The obvious remedy would seem to be to abolish the weekly time-table, and be content with a daily one; that is to say, to arrange the work so that whatever is to be learnt shall be learnt daily, the lessons of every evening the same. To do this it would be necessary to leave out some of the subjects now taught, and to throw others together. For instance, history might be more intimately associated than it is now with geography, the two lessons being taken together; English grammar might be taught along with Latin. Omissions of particular subjects could only be managed by arranging the whole curriculum so that some should be taken up at an earlier, others at a later period; and that the pupil should learn enough of them then to suffice him for the rest of his course. Latin, where Latin is taught, and arithmetic, must of course go on from first to last. But if, instead of having spelling, geography, history, French, and so forth, for two hours a week during four or five years, the boy had each of them for one or two years, taking an hour every day, he would probably know more of all at 15 than he does now. A thing which has once been thoroughly learnt remains in the memory, even if not constantly kept up; while that which is always being learnt, yet never has been mastered, as is the case with these subjects now, fades away in a year or two. Thus it might well be that a boy who had learnt geography vigorously during his twelfth and thirteenth years would know more about it at 16 than another boy who had learnt it in a scattered languid fashion from 11 to 15; for it would be easy to keep up by stated examinations a knowledge once thoroughly acquired. Some of those schoolmasters who admitted the evils of the present system, objected nevertheless to such a modification of it, on the ground firstly, that parents would be shocked if they heard at any given moment that their son was not learning history or spelling; and secondly, that boys entered the school at such various ages that it was necessary to keep classes always going in every subject. The latter objection, especially in the case of small schools, has no doubt great weight; yet it is impossible not to feel that some change is called for, which shall enable the pupil to concentrate his attention upon few subjects at once, instead of frittering it away upon many, as he does now.

Possible substitution of a daily time-table.

Objections suggested.

3. Want of thoroughness in the teaching, like every other fault, may of course be traced to the insufficient number and defective skill of teachers themselves, more particularly of assistant teachers; and this again is mainly a money question. Teaching will not attract more talent until it is better paid. Meantime it is worth considering whether the present distribution of teachers is not susceptible of improvement. In almost all schools the rule is that every teacher teaches every subject. The exceptions are mathematics, commonly, though not always, given to a person specially qualified, modern languages, and drawing. Why should not the principle, recognized in the case of these three subjects, that a man who has devoted himself to one branch should be chosen out to teach it, be also recognized in the case of arithmetic, geography,

Organization and distribution of the teaching staff.

history? It is well that a teacher's knowledge should not be confined to his own department; but he is far more likely to be thoroughly master of it and of the way to teach it if he is given nothing else to think of, and made alone responsible for its condition. At present one frequently sees good classical scholars, who have no notion of teaching arithmetic, set to do it because they have a particular class or set of classes in the school; and similarly another man, who is neither a good classic nor a good mathematician, is chosen because he knows just enough of both subjects to teach them to the less advanced classes. How much better to have had one sound classic and one good mathematician, and let each confine himself to what he can do well. So, too, with the teaching of history, if it is to be anything better than the pretence it is now; so with the natural sciences. These are subjects which cannot be fitly dealt with by the man who has got up just as much of them as seems needed for the exigencies of the moment.

The 'Fach-System' of German schools.

The objections to such a redistribution of the teachers, according to branches of instruction instead of according to particular classes or parts of the school, are two. First, that it would weaken that hold which is maintained over the boy by his responsibility to one master for all his lessons. Secondly, that it would require an elaborate organization of hours and classes such as could only be carried out in a big school. A small school would not have boys enough to employ a master for each subject, nor funds enough to pay them; all that it can do is to procure two or three men of fair general knowledge. If this be so, it is an argument for having larger schools, in which a more perfect organization will be easier. On the value of the argument first given I do not presume to offer an opinion; it is a matter for practical teachers. But I could not help constantly feeling, in examining one school after another, that the neglect of the principle of the division of labour, the system of setting every teacher, whatever his tastes or powers, to teach everything which boys learn, was a waste of power and the source of manifold evils.

Objections to the proposed redistribution.

4. It is, speaking generally, only in some endowed schools that the noxious practice exists of having two altogether separate divisions, an upper and lower, and committing the lower to the sole charge of an assistant-master. But in many private adventure as well as grammar schools, the head-master teaches only the higher, or the very highest class, giving nothing more than a loose supervision to the management of the younger boys by his subordinates. They are his inferiors in ability and experience, and yet their task is perhaps more difficult than his own. It is a common notion that as elder boys are engaged upon higher subjects, they need better teaching than younger children do. The reverse would be nearer the truth. To teach advanced boys a man must indeed have more knowledge, but to teach beginners he must have more skill. The stronger and more mature mind of a boy of 16 needs only to be supplied with materials and directed in working upon them, to work upon rather than direction: the undeveloped, inconsistent, hasty mind of a child of 10 needs not

System of giving the youngest boys to the worst teacher: its evils.

only materials and direction, but needs still more constant help, guidance, and encouragement, the wise use of the stimulus of pleasure and novelty. How much room for skill in the affording and applying of these! As the chief object of education is to form good mental habits and tastes, it follows that the most important period in education is that wherein habits are formed, when the mind is pliable and can receive an impress from the hand of moulding wisdom. Schoolmasters complain of the dulness of their pupils at 14 or 15; their obstinate preference of guessing to thought, their inaccuracy, the want of clearness and of any attempt to obtain clearness in their conceptions, forgetting that these vices which cannot be removed at that age might have been corrected or avoided five or eight years earlier. It would therefore be desirable that what is now done in a few schools were done in all;—that the head-master should from time to time not merely examine, but give some direct personal teaching to the youngest boys, and should carefully superintend and advise his assistants in teaching them. In those very large schools where the head-master has so much to manage that he has but little time to teach, he may at least provide skilful men to deal with the beginners, instead of leaving them, as they are so often left now, to the youngest and rawest of his staff.

Superlative importance of skilful teaching for beginners.

Want of proper education during the years of childhood.

5. All teachers everywhere complain of the defective state of preparation in which boys come to them; nor is this, as some might uncharitably suppose, merely a way of excusing their own deficiencies. There can be no doubt that the early education of children, from six to ten years of age, is sadly neglected and mismanaged. It is not so much that they are left ignorant at ten, but that they have already acquired bad habits of mind and a distaste for all study, a distaste strong enough to overpower that natural desire for knowledge which so many philosophers have described as one of the strongest impulses of man. It is this, the feeling that he does not get a fair chance with his pupils, but must unravel the already sorely tangled web before he can begin to weave a new one, that most annoys and discourages the earnest teacher. Yet it is hard to see how things are to be made any better. Preparatory schools are mostly conducted by ladies, who are patient and conscientious in teaching little boys to read and spell, but who, knowing nothing of teaching, not even that there is any art in it, cannot be expected to have any idea how to develope their minds.* Visiting governesses are in the same position: they take tuitions as a temporary resource, having probably received an education not better than that of other girls (and what that is everybody knows): having no ideas about the proper methods of instruction, and no one to give them a particle of advice or direction. Many children, especially of the poorer middle class, have neither school nor governess, but are left to run about the house or the street, and get a lesson once or twice a week

Visiting governesses.

* It need hardly be said I do not mean to reflect upon the abilities of women as teachers; on the contrary, there are many examples to prove that they are at least as capable as men of becoming proficients in the art, and that they teach young children (up to 10) better than most men do.

from a mother or elder sister. There seems, therefore, to be no resource but in the foundation of new preparatory or infant schools, under the management of really competent persons, or in the addition to the grammar schools already existing of preparatory departments to be taught in a separate building, but be under the general direction of their head master, who can thus arrange them in conformity with the system of the advanced school.* It is agreed on all hands that a preparatory school should contain girls as well as boys; and it is also agreed that it should be, if possible, taught by women, since they are more patient and more gentle with children, yet quite as capable as men can be of learning how to teach aright. Such a preparatory school would of course not attempt to get much work out of boys of eight and nine (it may be doubted whether boys even of 10 and 11 are not worked too hard already); its aim should be to make them know thoroughly and intelligently whatever they learnt; and in particular to give them instruction in subjects which cannot be taught in the small schools whither they now resort—subjects such as natural history, singing, the elements of drawing.

Need for authorized preparatory schools.

D. The Educational Curriculum.

Respecting the educational curriculum of schools there are four questions to be considered: (I) Should a curriculum be purely general, or also include special and strictly professional branches of instruction? (II.) Should its character, in the case of a school where boys remain until 18, be mainly classical, or present an alternative of classics and the so-called modern studies? (III.) What should be, in the case of a school where boys remain until 15 or 16, the usual branches of instruction, and which of these should be regarded as vital? (IV.) Is it necessary or desirable to have a fixed curriculum at all, whereto the studies of all pupils must conform?

Question respecting the curriculum of schools.

I.—*Professional Education.*

Against the introduction into schools of strictly professional studies, there was a surprising unanimity in the evidence I received. Practical men, merchants, manufacturers, farmers, and others said that the instruction given at school in any special craft was of very little use, since it could not be made practical enough. The essence of the learning, in their view, consisted in doing the thing: rules were of no use until the application could be given along with the rule. A great deal which would be obscure and difficult if stated in an abstract form, explains itself when presented to the eye or hand; a great many precepts which a teacher would give would in practice be perfectly useless. The most judicious and experienced people everywhere were agreed that

Professional education in schools.

General disapproval thereof.

Opinions (*a*) of practical men.

(*b*) Of the wise generally.

* Such a preparatory department has within the last few years been added to the grammar school at Preston, and has hitherto been found popular and useful. Children trained in it, says the head-master, are found to make far more rapid progress in the grammar school.

the time allowed for general education was in Lancashire already too short, and deprecated any intrusion of professional studies which should abridge it further. A boy, they insisted, would attain greater ultimate success as well as be a more cultivated man, if he carried on his education—his liberal education—up to the last possible moment. Schoolmasters dilated on the difficulty of managing to give any special preparation, except in the very largest schools. The number of boys, they said, who desire such preparation is too small to maintain a separate teacher for the branch or branches in question; if one of the regular teachers is withdrawn from his duties to undertake it, other boys suffer and the whole order of the school is unsettled; nay those very boys who receive such special instruction, being withdrawn from one or more of the classes, get lazy, and lose their interest in the work of the place. At present it can hardly be said that more than two subjects are taught with a view to future occupation of the pupil—mechanical drawing and book-keeping, and the latter of these is usually very ill-taught. There seems to be but one concession which can safely be made by ordinary schools to persons who desire special preparation for their children, and that is by organizing classes in subjects which have a bearing on certain professions, while at the same time they have a scientific value of their own. Chemistry, for instance, is serviceable to the farmer and the calico printer; physics to the civil engineer and the mechanician; both, if properly taught, are valuable in themselves to all who can learn them. Therefore the future farmer or engineer who works at them is not sacrificing his general education, while he is at the same time gaining knowledge which will help him to learn the details of his trade; and will make him in the end a better farmer or engineer than any quantity of narrowly professional training could have made him. But it is only in large schools that even this description of professional education can be given.

(c) Of teachers.

Only safe form which professional education may take in schools.

II.—*Arrangement of Studies in University Schools (i.e. Schools where a fair proportion of the scholars remain till* 18).

Proper curriculum for classical schools (*i.e.* where boys remain till 18).

The question as to the best curriculum for schools professing to give a complete liberal education up to the age of 18 places as before the alternative of two systems; the German and the French.* Such a school has two sets of boys to consider, those whose parents desire for them a mainly classical education, and those to whom Latin and Greek, though not to be omitted, are objects of quite secondary importance.

German and French systems of providing two different sorts of superior education.

Now these two classes of boys may either receive their education in two separate schools, as is the case in Germany, where the Gymnasium and the Real Schule are independent though parallel institutions; or they may, as in France, remain in the same school, but pass at a certain point into different departments,

* It would perhaps be more correct to say, what was the French system, since M. Duruy has recently greatly modified the plan of bifurcation.

each with its appointed course of studies. Of the former system I have nothing to say, having seen nothing in Lancashire corresponding to the "practical school" of Germany. There is a sort of faint and general analogy between the character of the commercial private school, as compared with the endowed grammar school, and that of the Real Schule as compared with the Gymnasium: but it is very faint and general. The latter, which is beginning to be known under its French name of bifurcation, has been tried in one or two Lancashire schools, but hitherto to an extent too small to warrant conclusions respecting it. The need of it is less felt there than in some other parts of England, since the overwhelming majority of Lancashire boys go to business from 14 to 16, and those few who remain longer at school do so chiefly for the sake of classics. In endeavouring to work this bifurcative plan schoolmasters represent themselves as confronted by two very serious obstacles: the want of subjects by means whereof a training equally thorough with that of Latin and Greek can be given to the boy who has at 15 passed from classics to "modern studies;" and the great expense of maintaining a second staff of upper teachers, so that each department may be taught as efficiently as if it stood alone. Thus the evidence which I received was on the whole unfavourable to the plan of bifurcation, masters saying that the modern boys fell off, and made no greater progress in their peculiar studies, such as modern languages, than the classical boys who had to work at Latin and Greek as well. It is plain, however, that an experiment tried in this way is far from conclusive. So long as the "modern" boy is the exception, so long will he come short of those who are carried along in the main stream of school work. The classical department has the abler teachers, a greater stimulus from prizes and the prospect of university distinctions, and on the whole a higher average of talent in its pupils: it is not wonderful that its performances should be better than those of boys who are being taught rather to fill up the time than with any positive aim. It is only in a large town that the experiment can as regards day schools be fairly tried: and in the large towns of Lancashire boys are withdrawn from school at the age when bifurcation, according to French ideas, should begin.

Difficulties attaching to the plan of bifurcation.

Experiment not yet fairly tried.

Supposing, however, that more parents would consent to let their sons' education proceed until 18, it may well be doubted whether school would be the best place wherein those last two years could be spent. Two sessions at the Owens College in Manchester, or in Queen's College, Liverpool, supposing it revivified, or in some other such institution elsewhere, analogous to the Scotch or German universities, might perhaps do more to develope and cultivate the mind than any continuation of boyish studies. If young men cannot have the benefit of a complete university course, it may be well to let them have at least the benefit of coming for a year or two under the stimulating influence of men of greater intellectual power than most schoolmasters can be expected to possess; men whose minds, unharassed by the petty labours of school administration and discipline, have been able to devote

Education should not be completed at school.

themselves with full energy to one study, and to handle it in a freer and more manly spirit than it can be handled with schoolboys.

III.—*Proper Curriculum for Schools mainly Commercial (i.e. where Boys leave at 15 or 16).*

Proper curriculum for commercial schools.

The question of most practical importance for Lancashire schools is this—What is the best course of studies for boys whose education ends at 15? (*a.*) What should such a course include, and (*b.*) in what order should its component studies be successively taken?

(*a*) Elements of such a curriculum.

(*a.*) Reading, writing, arithmetic and geography are of course essentials, and with these may be classed by common consent English composition and at least the elements of mathematics. Three subjects remain (Latin, French, and natural science), all of which it is desirable to teach, if only it be possible to teach all thoroughly. That it is possible, by having more highly paid teachers and a better organization of schools, there seems great reason to believe; still this is a matter for schoolmasters themselves to decide by trying the experiment. If it be not possible, the question comes to be, which of these three subjects has the best claim to be retained and have assigned to it the chief place in the higher work of the school. Reasons have already been given for believing that Latin should be maintained in schools of this class, and, if maintained, taught with sufficient energy to make it substantially valuable, else it had better be dismissed at once. To exclude it is to erect a social and intellectual barrier between different classes of the nation, and to brand one whole set of schools as "middle-class" or plebeian. And it is to lose what is at present the best chance any boy has of getting some thorough training, something that is not such mere surface work as the teaching of geography, history, English literature, and, in most cases, French is at this moment. Latin is of no use for commerce, it is true, but French and German are of very little;* business men will not spend their evenings over Virgil and Cicero, neither do they over Shakespeare and Burke. Will a knowledge of French lead them to study French literature; or if so, will French literature mean anything but French novels? There are persons here and there whose special tastes or pursuits may make a knowledge of French or German necessary; but such persons, if they have once learnt any one language thoroughly at school, will find it easy to acquire enough of French or German to serve their turn.† The claims of Latin and of natural science may seem more equally balanced, but the desirability of giving some sort of linguistic training to every boy

The mainstay: Latin *v.* French.

Reasons for preferring Latin.

Latin *v.* natural science.

* In Lancashire all the trade with Germany is in the hands of Germans. French clerks are not often needed, even in Liverpool (Spanish would be more serviceable there); and houses who carry on any considerable foreign trade keep a regular corresponding clerk.

† It may be worth mentioning that in the evening classes at Owens College, Manchester, no subject attracts so many students as Latin.

who can profit by it, and the evident superiority of Latin to English as the vehicle of such training, appear to suggest that Latin should be the rule in most schools, and an exclusively scientific training be given only to those boys who are unlikely to profit by the study of languages. Some scientific training ought, if possible, to be given to all; and if this were facilitated, as it might be, by a cultivation of the observing faculties in childhood, it need not be impossible to make French also an integral part of the curriculum.

Proper succession of studies to one another.

(*b.*) The order of time on which studies should be entered upon is a point respecting which not many of my informants seemed to have worked out any conclusions. There is no great dissatisfaction with the present system; yet it seems worth while to mention some of the points in which an alteration has been proposed.

View that Latin should come later than at present.

1. Latin, say some persons, whose opinions are entitled to great respect, is now begun too early. Boys would know as much of it at 15 as they do now if they began at 12 instead of at 9. Their minds are too immature to retain the multitude of strange forms which it places before them, and to master the difficulties of its construction.

As likewise mathematics.

2. Mathematics, now often taken up as early as 11 or 12, should not, as a rule, begin before 13. Age is of course a bad measure of a boy's capacity; some will be fitter at 12 than others at 15, but in speaking generally it is hard to know what other measure to use.

And history.

3. History, treated as a regular study, is of little value until boys have some conception of intervals of time and of the affairs of the world they live in; that is, until they are some 14 years of age. As a collection of tales intended chiefly to cultivate the imagination it cannot, of course, begin too early.

Spelling to be disposed of in the earlier years.

4. In learning to spell the reasoning faculties are not much called into play. Spelling, therefore, may as well be learnt at 10 as at 12 or 13 (although, of course, the boy of 13 will learn it, like everything else, more easily), and thus time may be saved for the severer studies of after years.

English grammar to precede and dissolve into Latin or French

5. English grammar need not be kept up abreast, so to speak, of Latin or French grammar, as a separate study. It should rather be made a preparation to these studies, being used chiefly to teach the elementary principles of all grammar and the meaning of such technical terms as cannot be dispensed with. When Latin or French begins it may merge in them.

Observing powers to be cultivated in early youth.

6. Since the faculties of observation and memory develope faster and earlier than those of abstract thought, it would seem desirable to let the teaching of natural history and of those parts of natural science which can be mastered without any great effort of thought begin at an early age. So, too, the elements of drawing and music, or at least singing, may be learnt with pleasure by children to whom grammar and any but the simplest operations of arithmetic would be a grievous burden.

General considerations as to

As it is in the last year or two that a boy spends at school —from 14 to 16—that he makes the most rapid progress in

order of subjects.

positive knowledge, it would seem desirable to let a curriculum be so ordered that these years shall as much as possible be left free for the higher studies, more especially for languages and science, mathematical or physical. This may best be done by taking pains to bring the younger classes up to such a point of knowledge of the easier subjects of instruction that it is not necessary in these later years to do more than maintain them at that point. Of geography, for example, a boy may have learnt as much at 13 (certain parts of physical and mathematical geography excepted) as he need ever know. In arithmetic he may have attained a readiness and quickness in working the easier rules which will make him at home in the more difficult ones so soon as their principles have been explained to him. It would seem, therefore, according to the views just stated, that in the earlier part of an ordinary school curriculum more attention should be given than is now given to natural history, to reading and spelling, and to drawing; that in the middle part (from the age of 11 to 13) attention should be concentrated on arithmetic and the elements of grammar, English and Latin, together with geography; and that during the last years, 13 to 15 or 16, the study of mathematics, and, if possible, of natural science and French also, should be added to Latin and arithmetic.

IV.—*Is a fixed curriculum necessary?*

Doubtful propriety of a fixed curriculum.

It would take too long to discuss here whether or no it is necessary to have a fixed curriculum, enforcing on all boys the same studies in the same order. I desire to call your attention only to the fact that the expediency of such an arrangement is questioned, and to the method by which it has been proposed to get rid of it. If schools, it is said, were classified, and masters distributed according to subjects of instruction (and not as at present, according to the place in the school held by the pupils), each department—the classical, the arithmetical, the scientific, and so forth, being under its own specially qualified master—might receive boys whether or not they were in attendance in certain other departments. A boy, for instance, might continue to work at Latin and Greek after quitting the department in which he learnt history and geography; or he might be for years together in the arithmetical department without ever going near the classical. Thus parents would be free to choose the sort of education they pleased, and boys could more easily pursue the studies for which they were best fitted, or in which their previous training, perhaps at some other school, had left them most deficient. The difficulty in this plan is to let the hours of the different departments be so arranged that they shall not clash with one another; but in a large school, where more than one class can be maintained of boys at the same or something like the same stage of progress, this difficulty is not insuperable. It need hardly be said that such an organization would be more easily worked in a very large day school, one of 500 boys or so, although cases may be adduced in which it has been found eminently successful with only 100 or 150 boys. In large schools it has much to

Looser relation between different departments of the school.

recommend it; since it goes far to meet the two great problems of such schools, the need of providing both a mainly classical and a mainly practical course of instruction for boys who remain till 18; and the still greater need of educating under the same masters, up to the age of 15, boys who are to quit school at that age and others who are to remain for a year or two longer.

E. Discipline and Moral Tone.

Behaviour of the boys in school.

Your instructions directed me to inquire into the moral tone of the scholars in the Lancashire schools; but in the necessarily short time which I spent in each of the schools visited, I found it very difficult to do so to any good purpose. Even the good order of the boys, and their deportment towards their teachers and each other, could not fairly be judged of, since the sudden advent of a stranger proposing to hold an examination, while it imposes a certain restraint upon the ruder boys, must also cause some little confusion in the school, and, in so far make it appear to a disadvantage. On the whole, it seemed to me, that order and propriety and good feeling were the rule, terrorism or turmoil the exception. There was often, however, a want of promptness on the part of the boys in settling themselves down to do a paper, which showed that they had not been accustomed to examinations; and it seemed to me that some of the masters themselves might have profited greatly by those lessons in the organizing and managing of a school which are given in the Government training colleges. It need hardly be said that many head-masters complained bitterly of the unfitness of their assistants to rule and guide boys; and expressed a wish that there was any means of giving them systematic preparation as well for this function as for that of communicating knowledge.

Shortcomings of assistant-masters in power of managing boys.

School government.

II. It was seldom that I had any direct means of ascertaining—or, indeed, any means whatever, except the report of the head master—what was the system of rewards and punishments in use, and how far they were wisely administered. Most teachers disclaim the practice of frequent punishment, and some repudiate with vehemence the notion of any, even the gentlest, infliction of physical pain. When they do administer this last remedy to vice or insubordination it is always by means of the cane, and usually on the hand. In all Lancashire there is, to the best of my belief, only one birch in regular use.* In some cases one could not but think that they spoke of corporal punishment with a tinge of morbid sentimentalism, looking on any form of it as a degradation and insult to the boy's honour. Such feelings are probably foreign to the boy himself, who thinks only of the present pain, and suffers in reality much less than he would do from confinement, deprivation of privileges, or extra tasks. Still it cannot be doubted that

General aversion to corporal punishment.

* Of the private schoolmasters who have answered the questions of the Commission, four-fifths state that they use corporal punishment (one-half of them adding "rarely"), about three-sevenths use impositions, and about one-third detention. Some few profess to have no punishments whatever. Endowed schools, almost without exception, use the cane.

the last 40 years have worked a great improvement, abolishing the cruel system which was then almost universal in Lancashire schools.*

Other punishments.

Of other punishments the most common, besides bad marks, are impositions to be written out, and extra lessons. The former of these is objectionable as injuring the handwriting, which I believe it must always do, even when the master insists that the piece shall be written neatly; extra tasks are even more to be condemned, since they lead the mind to associate learning with pain, shame, and weariness.

Prizes.

In all the greater and many of the lesser schools there is a regular system of prizes, depending usually on the marks for work during the half-year; and sometimes also on the results of special examinations. One or two private schoolmasters have carried this method of stimulation into an unexpected development, applying it to delight the parents as well as the boys. It is ingeniously managed that every boy shall receive at least one and perhaps many more prizes. I remember one case in which a boy had gained 22. He may possibly have been the best in the school, but he would not, judging from his performances when examined, have been thought worthy of a prize in any of the dozen best grammar schools in the county.

Some teachers whom I met objected to any system of rewards, saying that it both lowered a boy's sense of duty and did harm by fostering jealousies and envyings among the scholars. Gentle punishments, they said, might perhaps, be less dangerous, but in their opinion a good teacher should be ashamed to rely on anything but moral influence. But I do not remember to have found any school of importance which carried these views into practice, dispensing as well with rewards as with punishments.

Recreation.

III. It is agreed that nothing contributes more to keep up the spirit of a school and to make boys fond of it than a proper provision for games and sports, and the display of some little interest by the teachers in such recreations. It is equally certain that boys will get through more intellectual work, and do it in better style if their minds are not kept long on the stretch; if intervals of relaxation are allowed every hour or so during the course of the day. Yet both principles are neglected in many of the lesser—in some few even of the greater schools of Lancashire. Few are without some sort of playground, but it is often too small to be of any service, and there is seldom either a gymnasium or a play place for wet weather, necessary as the latter is in the moist climate of western England. And frequently, whether there is a playground or not, boys are kept continuously at work from 9 a.m. till 12; and again from 2 p.m. till 4 or 5, having no interval of rest and relaxation except that which they may contrive for themselves in lazily passing from one sort of work to another. Of these three unbroken hours of study, too often passed in a hot, foul

Boys kept too long continuously employed.

Evil effects thereof.

* Of course I was now and then met by stories of excessive harshness on the part of schoolmasters, and had reason in one or two cases to believe there was some ground for complaint. There was nothing, however, that could be called positive cruelty.

atmosphere, languid eyes and listless minds are the natural consequence. Monotony, which is so painful to every one, is more peculiarly painful to the volatile minds of the young: if their full attention is to be secured, it must not be kept long concentrated on the same topic, nor indeed on any topic. I found ample reason to believe that school hours are more often too long than too short, and that more work (*i.e.* better work) would be got out of boys under 12 if they were never required to be in school more than five hours daily. Whatever parents might complain of as lost here might be made up by abridging the holidays. No one would willingly interfere with the summer vacation, when a Lancashire family goes down to the sea-coast (such sea as that dreary coast has). But the month or six weeks at Christmas is, so far as the boys are concerned, mere waste of time. In winter there are no out-door sports to employ the boy who lives in a smoky Lancashire town. He merely lounges about the house, wretched himself, and the cause of wretchedness to others. From the 23rd of December till the 6th of January would be a sufficiently long vacation; it is in point of fact longer than boys are allowed in Scotland. It is true that such abridgment would be a hardship to the masters, but they might perhaps accept shorter school-hours as a compensation. It is to be wished that teachers were more alive to the importance of enlivening the dreary drudgery of school, not only by frequent intervals of play, but by some little variety in the manner of teaching itself. I have met with one or two teachers whose ingenuity in things of this kind had been so conspicuously successful in giving life to their classes, and making most of the boys really fond of their work, that one could not but regret that the thought of making such an attempt should so rarely present itself.

Necessity for attempting to give boys intelligent interests and tastes.

IV. The mention of these devices naturally leads to the consideration of those means, forming no part either of regular teaching or of regular discipline, which the teacher may use to interest the boy and quicken his intellectual growth. Over and above all the positive knowledge which a boy acquires at school, and perhaps of more ultimate value than any branch of such knowledge, is the love of knowledge itself, or to use the most familiar expression, a taste for reading. He who has this taste not only learns for himself much which school would otherwise have to teach him—he forms a habit of self-improvement which abides with him when the years of compulsory instruction are at an end, and becomes a source of profit and pleasure throughout life. As the implanting of this taste is the highest, so is it also the most difficult of a teacher's duties, and one in the performance of which he must be content to expect many disappointments. In the case of day schools, less can be done by him than by the parents, and from parents absorbed in business little need be looked for. Still there are two steps that might be taken which would at any rate aid the efforts of a zealous teacher, and increase the number of boys on whom his stimulating influence would operate with success.

Difficulties to be overcome.

Possible devices.

(1.) Parents, if only they could be led to see the importance of the matter, might be more careful as to the books their children read.

Care over a boy's reading.

The extraordinary increase in the quantity of printed paper in the world, the profusion of cheap newspapers, cheap magazines, cheap literature of every kind which marks this age, does not seem, so far as boys are concerned, to have been by any means an unmixed blessing. Thirty years ago boys read very little fiction except Robinson Crusoe, the Arabian Nights, and some fairy tales. Such reading was healthier than the present swarm of "children's stories," and "books for boys;" and it was not so abundant as to enervate the mind, and make truth less pleasant than untruth. Hence boys used to read voyages and travels, biographies, and even history: they enjoyed such reading just as much as they do their modern novelettes, and were far more benefited by it. No one doubts that it is a capital mistake to bind young people down to their lesson-books alone, since there are some—and those often the best—whose mental growth will be more quickened by miscellaneous reading than by any systematic teaching. But when boys may find in narratives of travel and adventure, in the lives of illustrious men, in history, united with some well-selected and purely imaginative fiction, the gratification of their natural desire for something which may excite the feelings and stimulate the fancy, is it a less mistake to destroy their pleasure in such books by an unlimited supply of tales inferior to the old fiction at once in imaginative power and in that simplicity which is the truest morality, tales which, like spiced meats, unfit the palate of him who feeds upon them for all plain and healthy intellectual food?

Establishment of school libraries.

(2.) It would not be enough for parents to discourage novel reading if some better reading were not at hand to replace it. Hence the desirability of providing, wherever funds can be applied or acquired for the purpose, school libraries, whose books shall be freely lent out to the boys attending the school, gratis or at some very low charge (varying, of course, according to the character of the school). Such libraries do exist in a few large boarding schools, and are there found productive of much good, though there is reason to think it might be well to go even further than such establishments have mostly ventured to go in the way of providing amusement as well as instruction for the boys. So long, experienced teachers may be heard to say, as boys do not read novels (and the novels written expressly for them are at least as injurious to them as grown people's can be), all books are good for them; the great thing is to get them to read somehow.

Other expedients.

Of the various ways in which a teacher may turn a library to good account, or stimulate the intellectual interests of his scholars without it—of optional exercises, of prizes offered for home reading, of societies formed among the boys themselves, of occasional lectures on literary subjects, of botanical and geological excursions into the country—of all these it is not necessary to speak, although the admirable results attained, even in day schools, by some few teachers who have had the zeal and skill to work them, shows how much more might be done in this direction than most people venture to dream of.

V.—*Comparative Merits of Day and Boarding Schools.*

Day schools *v.* Boarding schools.

Before quitting the subject of discipline and moral tone in schools a word must be said on one important question, the comparative advantages in this regard of day school and boarding-school education. My own observation does not for obvious reasons enable me to make any remarks upon the subject, except these two—that the day schools which I examined were intellectually quite equal to the boarding schools, and that the spiritless woe-begone air of the boys in some of the cheap private boarding establishments sufficiently proved that their system tended to degrade the character while it neglected the intelligence. But it may be proper to state to you the views entertained by persons interested in the matter who spoke to me upon it.

Reasons advanced in favour of boarding schools.

In favour of boarding-schools it is alleged (1) that the teacher, having a much greater command over the boy, can get more work out of him; (2) that life away from home gives a robustness of character, a spirit and independence, which are wanting in home-bred boys; and (3) that it is well to prevent a boy from forming acquaintances of a rank lower than his own in the town where his future life is to be passed. Persons who desire these advantages for their children, yet are too poor to send them to such places as Marlborough, Rossall, and Clifton, often express a wish to have public schools founded, similar in management to those last named, but cheaper, and giving a more commercial education.

In favour of day schools.

Many of my informants, on the other hand, thought a day-school system not inferior in an intellectual point of view, and in a moral one far superior.

Public school system not necessarily applicable to schools for a poorer class.

(1.) They urged, as regards the supposed manliness of boarding-school boys, that this virtue was only to be found where the so-called "public school system" prevailed, and nowise in private adventure schools. Nor were they sanguine of the success of cheap public boarding schools, believing that a method of government which may answer well among boys belonging to the better educated and more refined classes, where it is supposed that a certain amount of honourable feeling may be taken for granted, might break down if applied to boys coming from homes of a different stamp.

Moral evils of boarding schools.

(2.) They painted in very dark colours the moral condition of most boarding schools; declaring that wherever large numbers of boys were gathered together, serious evils would be sure to appear. "There are schools," said they, "where the high tone and constant vigilance of the head master keeps these evils in check, and maintains a healthy spirit among the boys, but no vigilance can altogether eradicate or prevent them. The best way of grappling with them is through the action of the boys themselves, not by the supervision of assistant masters, which (as some schoolmasters confess) can never be fully efficient, and is attended with incidental disadvantages. Hence those large public schools, in which a modified system of self-government prevails, are, as a rule, safer than private boarding schools. For in them not only is

a good tone among the elder boys communicated to the younger, but the elder, if they wish it, have the means of knowing and putting down either cruelty or vice; while in private schools, unless they be so small that the head master can be familiar with the character and habits of each boy, the boys band together against the ushers, and make it their business to conceal one another's delinquencies." How much truth there was in these allegations it was impossible for me to ascertain, as it is impossible to state to you the specific stories adduced in proof of them. But there seemed evidence enough to lead an inquirer to believe that the moral evils of boarding schools, drinking, for example, and the use of indecorous language, are far more serious and more frequent than is commonly supposed.

Formation of character.

(3.) It is further argued that the influences of home, even a commonplace home, are more favourable than those of a boarding school to the formation of a simple, upright, and affectionate character; "the natural place for a boy is not among a herd of other boys, who only exaggerate the faults and follies of boyhood, but at times also among his elders, and under the eye of his own parents. Living constantly among strangers he loses his sensibility, probably also his purity of mind; his domestic affections are weakened, and with them one of the strongest motives for the virtuous conduct of his future life."

Conclusions.

The general conclusion to which all the representations I was met with appeared to point is briefly this. Intellectually the day school is not inferior to the boarding school. It is true that in the latter more work can be got out of the boy. But he is less free; he is at the mercy of his companions, adopts their opinions and their moral standard, is not likely to develope original tastes and powers. One hears a boarding-school master complacently contrast himself with the average commercial parent, and ask whether it is not better a boy should be under his care than the father's. As a matter of fact this master has little intercourse with his boarders out of school hours. He sits at meals at the one end of a table among his family, and they all down its length; it is only where the school is very small, or he himself a person of genuine ardour and goodness, that he exerts any perceptible influence over their intellect and character. There seems no reason why people in towns should be encouraged to send their children from home, unless the child's health or peculiarity of character requires it. But for the sake of parents who have no good day schools near them, yet dread the cheap private boarding schools, it would be desirable to try the experiment of founding places where board and lodging, as well as instruction, might be provided under public management and supervision, so that the teacher shall make nothing off the food of his pupils, and that assistant masters may be obtained very far superior to those who now disgrace most of the cheap schools. The scale of charges need not be fixed lower than 30*l.* per annum in order to make such schools reach a large class in the community, to whom Rossall, Haileybury, Marlborough, Clifton, and Chelten-

Cheaper public boarding schools may be tried.

ham are wholly inaccessible. Secondly, some of the advantages of the public boarding-school system already attach to the endowed day schools, as contrasted with the small private day schools. Others might be secured by enlarging these grammar schools, giving them a more conspicuously public character, and fostering, by means of proper provision for sports, of a library and reading-room, of a proper place for the mid-day meal which so many find it convenient to take at school, the formation of a public spirit and corporate feeling among their scholars. These things seem trivial in themselves, but in the hands of a vigorous master, himself mixing freely with his pupils, they may be made the means of greatly elevating the tone of the whole body, and giving to boys that sort of patriotic interest in their school, its history, its associations, the past and present honours of its alumni, which is so highly prized in the great institutions of the South of England.

More may be done to give the grammar schools the advantage of the public school system.

The general conclusions to which the facts stated in this chapter seemed to me to point are as follows :—

1. That the great majority of Lancashire boys, above the rank of labourers, receive a meagre education, including little or no classics, and still less of mathematical or physical science.
2. That little attention is paid to the formation of a good style of reading aloud.
3. That arithmetic is taught too much as a mere art of reckoning, too little as a science.
4. That the methods and text-books used in teaching it are very often clumsy, old-fashioned, and unphilosophical.
5. That mathematical geography is ill taught.
6. That physical geography is little taught.
7. That there are very few competent teachers of history, and by consequence little good teaching.
8. That there is a great want of good elementary books on history.
9. That English grammar is better taught now than heretofore, but that the grammars in use might with advantage be greatly shortened and simplified.
10. That English literature, as at present handled with a view to examinations, is little better than cram work.
11. That English composition is but just beginning to be recognized as a regular subject of instruction.
12. That mathematics, except in two or three schools, receives very little attention.
13 That it is taught, except as above, in a lifeless and unstimulating way.
14. That Latin is pretty thoroughly taught in the larger grammar schools and in a very few of the expensive private schools.
15. That it is taught too much by rules and too little by examples.
16. That if retained in schools mainly commercial the methods of teaching it should be remodelled.
17. That in particular it might be treated more as a living language, less time and pains being spent on the minutiæ of scholarship.

18. That the objections now made to it arise from the belief of tradespeople that it cannot be combined with a sound commercial training.
19. That the balance of argument is on the whole in favour of retaining it for the present, even in commercial schools.
20. That Greek exists in few schools, and in those is not made prominent.
21. That the teaching of French is apt to lack accuracy and strength.
22. That there is a tendency to lay stress on detached idioms, to the neglect of a thorough knowledge of the grammar.
23. That natural science and natural history are as yet systematically taught in few schools.
24. That it is both possible and desirable to make their study an integral part of the ordinary school curriculum.
25. That the knowledge of Scripture history in schools is generally neither wide nor exact.
26. That there is a considerable familiarity with the words of doctrinal formularies, little idea of their meaning.
27. That the present arrangements of schools set boys to learn too many things at once.
28. That the propriety of having, where it is possible, a separate teacher for each of the chief subjects of instruction is not recognized.
29. That elementary teaching is usually and unwisely left altogether to the lower masters.
30. That there is a great want of good infant and other preparatory schools.
31. That professional education ought not to be attempted in ordinary schools.
32. That boys whose education is to end at 18 will do better to spend the last two years of it in some institution giving a collegiate (quasi university) education than in school.
33. That in large towns it would be well to try the experiment of establishing schools with no fixed curriculum, giving each department of the school an independent existence.
34. That schoolmasters might do much more than they do now to create and foster intellectual tastes in their pupils.
35. That boarding schools are not either intellectually or morally preferable to day schools.
36. That to avoid the evils so frequent and so gross in cheap private boarding schools, it is desirable to erect cheap boarding establishments under public management and supervision.

CHAPTER V.

The Teachers.

There has been no difficulty in ascertaining the standing and previous training of the teachers in endowed schools.

The accompanying table shows, as regards the head masters, where they have been educated, and what university degrees, if any, they possess.

—	Schools* classed under A.	Schools classed under B.	Schools classed under C.	Total.
Graduates of Oxford - - -	4	1	0	5
Do. of Cambridge - - -	4	3	3	10
Do. other British Universities -	1	8	0	9
Persons who have been in training colleges or Government schools - - -	1	2	3 (?)	6
Others (nondescript) - - -	1	3	24	28

Places in which the teachers in Lancashire schools have been educated.

With respect to the proprietary and private adventure schools the information procured is much less complete. To speak first of proprietary schools (using this term to denote all schools neither of old foundation nor yet the property of the master),—

At Rossall all the superior masters are graduates either of Oxford or Cambridge, at present chiefly of the latter.

Stonyhurst is taught by members of the Society of Jesus, some of whom have studied in English or foreign universities.

Liverpool College has none but English graduate masters (chiefly from Cambridge) in its upper school. In the middle there are one or two university men, but the majority are either those classed as nondescript, or have come from Government training colleges.

In the Liverpool Institute School it is the same, except that the proportion of English university graduates is very much smaller, only about 10 per cent.

In the Royal Institution School in Liverpool the masters, except those for writing and for modern languages, are university men.

In a school called the Church Institute, in Bolton, the head and second masters are Cambridge men.

In the Manchester Commercial School, which falls technically within this class, though practically the establishment may be treated as a private school, the head-master is a graduate of the University of London.

* For the meaning of this classification, vide supra, p. 429. I have not reckoned in, in making out this table, any endowed schools under Government inspection.

Private Adventure Schools.

Private schools.

Out of the whole number with regard to whom trustworthy information has been obtained, 10 per cent. appear to have taken degrees at British universities. I do not in every instance know at what universities, but believe that about half of these, or five per cent. of the whole, are from the University of London or Trinity College, Dublin. A somewhat larger proportion, 12 to 15 per cent., have been in some manner connected with the Government schools, either as pupils of training colleges, or as teachers in National or British schools. The remaining 75 per cent. must be classed along with the majority of the endowed school teachers, as non-descript, *i.e.*, having received their education in so many different places and in so many ways that no general proposition can be laid down about them. Some, those chiefly who teach Latin, and therefore almost all of those who officiate in the endowed schools, have been at some time of their lives in a grammar school, others in private schools, others in mechanics' institutions; others have picked up what they learned without ever going regularly to school at all.

The assistant-masters.

Respecting the assistant-masters no statistics have been received which could be put in a tabular form. In such grammar schools as those of Manchester, Lancaster, Preston, and Bury several of them hold Oxford and Cambridge, one or two Dublin or London University degrees. This is also the case in two or three of the most expensive private schools. With these exceptions, they are not university men. Some, though not so many as might have been expected, have been teachers in Privy Council schools; the great bulk are young men who seem to have drifted into teaching for want of anything better to do; and who probably intend, though the intention is not always fulfilled, to betake themselves after a time to some other work.

The private school assistants are of course worse paid than those in grammar schools; they are for the most part younger men and generally inferior in knowledge and character.

Reverting to the head masters, it is noticeable how small a proportion of them are university men. As regards the endowed schools, Lancashire may be in this contrasted with some other parts of England. In Shropshire, for instance, with twelve endowed grammar schools, nine head-masterships are filled by Oxford or Cambridge graduates, one by a Dublin man, and two by persons holding no university degree. The state of things in Somerset and Devon is similar. But in Lancashire less than one-half have university degrees, and of these only fifteen are from Oxford or Cambridge. Of the University men it may be remarked that Cambridge sends many more than Oxford, and St. John's more than all the other colleges of Cambridge put together. The Scotch University men are either Scotchmen or English Non-conformists who have gone to Scotland rather than to the English universities on religious grounds. They are few in number. The Dublin men (an increasing class) are not Irishmen, but Englishmen who have taken what are called "steamboat degrees,"

going over from time to time to be examined, and not keeping any residence.

Without indulging any foolish prejudices in favour of the old universities, I may be permitted to express a regret that so few Oxford and Cambridge men are to be found in the Lancashire schools. It is a painful sign of that severance between the higher and the lower education of the country, by which one is so constantly struck in the manufacturing districts. The old universities do not require a wide range of knowledge from their graduates, and give their degrees with what some think culpable facility; in the art of teaching they provide them with no instruction whatever. Such men often come as head-masters to a grammar school, knowing little of modern methods and wholly unpractised in matters of discipline or domestic economy. But they usually set to work with more energy and in a higher spirit than any other class of teachers.* Having lived for at least four years (supposing them to have taken honours) in an intellectual and cultivated society, they have contracted an *esprit de corps* which maintains their self respect and operates almost as a second sense of duty. They have more zeal, more enterprise, more belief in the value of knowledge for its own sake, and on the whole a greater unwillingness to fall in with the sordid notions by which they are so often confronted. These merits belong, in some measure, to all universities: although much less to those which, like the Universities of London and Dublin, give degrees without residence.

The teacher from a training college.

At the opposite extremity of the social scale stand those who have received their education in the Government training colleges, and acted as teachers in the National or British schools. While the number of university men seems to decrease, that of these teachers increases. Several of the most successful private schools in the country have been founded by them, and they are even finding their way into the grammar schools. There are some very skilful teachers among them,† and even the worst do not sink so low as the worst untrained teachers: the training college, if it does not supply the want of talent and character, is a security against gross incompetence. Their merits and defects are the opposite of those which characterize university men. In whatever relates to the outward organization of schools they are at home. They frequently excel in oral teaching especially when addressed to young children. But their knowledge, although often wide, is generally superficial: they are seldom competent to deal with classics or the higher mathematics, and consequently avoid these subjects; their teaching, even when conducted on sound principles, is apt to be mechanical, and therefore unstimulating; and, although I believe them to be judiciously lenient in matters of discipline, their manner with boys is not altogether happy. It is seldom that they have or can communicate refinement either of mind or of manners.

* I speak of course of classes only: there are individual teachers of every degree of virtue in all classes.

† The most energetic whom I remember to have met with were from the Borough Road Training College.

Of the large body lying between these two well-marked classes (those classed in the table as nondescript), there is little to be said. Every here and there are found among them first-rate teachers, men in whom natural capacity has supplied the lack of training. One of the best elementary schools I saw was conducted by a man who had been a cotton operative, and did not seem to have ever received any systematic education except that of a national school, and what he had given himself afterwards. Among the endowed schoolmasters there are some men of considerable attainments. One, keeping a miserable school in a remote corner of the country, has distinguished himself in solving mathematical problems: another, in a similar place on the sea shore, is a keen naturalist, and has been most successful in communicating his taste to his pupils. Scarcely any, however, either of these or of the private schoolmasters, seemed to have received any special preparation for a teacher's work, whether in the form of a more thorough education than is given to most boys, or by instruction in the art of teaching itself; and the result of this neglect was seen in the obsolete methods, and preposterously old-fashioned school books which they were so frequently found using. Gross ignorance—ignorance like that of Mr. Squeers—is certainly rare. I met with one case in which the master of a flourishing classical and commercial (private) boarding school proved to be ignorant not merely of Latin and of the commonest facts of history, but of the grammar and spelling of the English language; and stories reached me of one or two such others. These men are generally successful by virtue of their skill in housekeeping, and when they have the sense to employ good under-masters their schools, although founded on imposture, are passably well taught. This particular master had not that sense: his school was in every respect as bad as bad could be.

Character and qualifications of the assistants.

The assistant masters are, with the exception of a few in the best grammar schools, very much worse in proportion than their chiefs. There was nothing about which head-masters were so unanimous as the difficulty of getting competent assistants and the badness of those with whom they were forced to work. I scarcely remember a case in which this answer was not given either to personal inquiries or to the written paper of questions which I sent round to the schoolmasters.* "If they have knowledge and talent they are almost sure to drink." "Scarcely ever have they any notion how to manage boys." "Testimonials cannot be "depended on; I often have candidates well recommended who turn "out on examination to be shamefully ignorant." When it is remembered what is the salary and what the prospects of an assistant master in a private or small grammar school, this state of things need raise no surprise.

It would have been interesting to ascertain not only how things stand at this moment, but what is their tendency; and whether any improvement is now in progress.

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* Printed in the Appendix, where there will also be found a letter from an eminent private schoolmaster on the subject.

There are very scanty materials for a generalization on the subject, but the impression derived from conversation with persons who had known Lancashire long was that matters were on the whole mending. Socially the class of teachers does not rise. There are fewer university men than heretofore in educational posts. But this decline, although it represents an intellectual loss, is more than compensated by the improvement in methods of teaching and in general activity which the establishment of the government training colleges, and the invasion of the commercial schools by their trained masters has produced, and which has not been without influence even on schools of a much higher grade. There is far more idea of intelligent teaching than there was 30 years ago; although this teaching is given by persons not more intelligent than their predecessors, and socially scarcely their equals.

Teaching seems to be improving, though the social rank of the teacher is not higher.

The competition for educational employment is now very great, both in schools of a higher and of a lower social rank, but the qualifications of the persons offering themselves are strongly contrasted. In foundations where the income is 400*l.* per annum and upwards, a vacancy generally attracts several men of real ability, and a good many others who have taken a degree with honours in some university. An instance may serve to show the proportion of candidates who present themselves from each quarter. Four or five years ago the Town Council of Preston advertised the headmastership of their grammar school. 78 competitors appeared, who may be classified as follows:—

Abundance of candidates for educational posts:

Instance of Preston Grammar School.

Cambridge.	Oxford.	Scotch Universities.	London University.	Trinity College, Dublin.	German University Degrees.	University unspecified.	Formerly in a Government School.*	Nondescript.
28	17	4	1	6	2	3	2	16

Of the Cambridge men seven were wranglers (all low down, except one, who was also Smith's prizeman), seven were senior optimes. One man only, a fifth classic, had taken a high classical degree. Among the Oxford graduates, there was no first-class man; five were second-class and three third-class men.

Preston is one of the first schools in the county, and although the endowment is not large, a very fair income may be made from the boarders and the fees of town boys. It is perhaps as surprising therefore that out of so many candidates there should not have been more university men of high distinction, as that there should have been so many of respectable claims. When we pass below the line of 400*l.* income (actual or possible), the case begins to alter; the proportion of university men declines rapidly, and that of teachers formerly in Government chools and of the nondescript class increases. Inquiry into the career of most of the candidates for posts in these second-rate schools would probably

* One of these had subsequently graduated at Edinburgh, and so appears in that column also.

show that the profession of teaching, crowded as it is, is crowded mostly by men who have been in, or originally destined themselves for, some different occupation. It is a swamp into which the other professions overflow. Comparatively few men devote their lives to it, giving themselves a regular preparation for its duties, and determining to stick to it and get on by it. Consequently, although many men of great ability are to be found in schools, the general standard is not what it ought to be.

The scholastic profession: its drawbacks. Its labour.

School-keeping is not an attractive profession. It is a laborious one. There is nothing so tiring as teaching children, when one does it with spirit, nothing that requires so much patience and self-control. It does not command as good a social position as the other professions do; that is to say, a schoolmaster does not hold a recognized position simply because he is a schoolmaster. He may do so on personal grounds, or as being a clergyman, but that is quite another affair. In its higher walks the educational profession has been hitherto regarded as an appanage of the sacerdotal order, and in that way grammar school masterships have shone with a sort of borrowed lustre. On the other hand, posts not usually filled by clergymen have received little respect.

Its want of an independent status.

Nowadays when the scholastic profession is becoming more distinct from the clerical, its want of a status of its own is seriously felt. In Lancashire a case in point was mentioned to me—slight, but illustrative. A young lady refused to marry her lover, who was an assistant-master in an important school (a university man, by the way), unless he raised his social position by taking orders. A request from such a quarter and enforced by such a threat overbore his own inclinations and the remonstrances of his head-master, who was sorry to lose one of the best members of his staff; he engaged himself to a curacy, and resigned, probably never to resume, his post as a teacher.

Clerical teachers.

There are of course some advantages in having clerical schoolmasters. But many of my informants represented the evils as greater and wished the two lines of life to be more distinctly separated. A clergyman, they said, is not satisfied to remain as a teacher: he is distracted by the wish of preferment in the Church: he is taken away from his school to do duty for neighbouring incumbents: his position, unless he be very discreet, makes him an object of suspicion to persons of other religious denominations. However, the real objection to making the profession of teaching a branch of the clerical is a more simple and more serious one: it greatly narrows the field of choice for educational posts. Many men of ability now turn away from education because they feel no call to become ordained clergymen, and yet see that it is only to clergymen that the prizes of the profession are open.

Its poverty.

But the greatest of all drawbacks to the profession of teaching is its poverty. It cannot, except in rare cases be made a lucrative means of life. It may be well to show by figures how the case stands.*

* These figures are taken from the returns moved for by Mr. Hodgkinson in the House of Commons and by the House ordered to be printed, 5th July 1865.

First as to endowed schools.

Incomes of teachers.

(*a*) In endowed schools.

No endowed schoolmaster in Lancashire has at this moment an income exceeding 800*l.* from the endowment and the fees of day-scholars combined.*

Five have incomes between 500*l.* and 300*l.* All the rest are below 300*l.*

(*b*) In private schools.

As to private schools no precise account can be given, since the masters themselves cannot be required to state their incomes. But a tolerably accurate estimate may be formed by comparing the fees paid with the expenses of management. Taking first the case of a "genteel" school, charging 16*l.* 16*s.* per annum for a classical and commercial education to day pupils above 12 years of age, and 12*l.* 12*s.* for younger children. Suppose 40 pupils belonging to the latter class and 30 to the former. This will give 1,008*l.* of receipts. Against this must be set the payment of four assistant-masters, who would probably receive 80*l.*, 70*l.*, 50*l.*, and 30*l.* respectively. Rent of school-house and playground, repairs, and taxes will amount, if the school-house is, as it must be, in a good situation, to at least 130*l.* For maps and other apparatus, and for the interest of money sunk in fittings, 40*l.* more may be allowed. This leaves a profit of 608*l.* out of which the master has to pay his own house rent, support his family, and, if possible, lay by something for the time when so wearing a life will have exhausted his strength. If these 70 boys should by any chance fall to 40, his profits are almost gone.

Take the case now of a cheap commercial school, charging 4*l.* 4*s.* per annum for elder, 3*l.* 3*s.* for younger boys. This, taking 50 boys as the average number in such schools, gives something less than 180*l.* The rent, taxes, and incidental expenses in this case will not amount to more than 40*l.*; the one assistant is lucky if he gets 30*l.*: 110*l.* is left for the owner of the school.†

Boarding schools, impossibility of calculating income derivable from

Both these cases are those of day schools. It would be in vain to try to calculate the receipts and disbursements of a boarding school, for everything depends on the skill shown in housekeeping and the style of feeding given to the boys. This is notoriously the only branch of the profession in which fortunes are to be made, but it is really no branch of the profession at all. It is not by his powers of teaching that the master of a boarding school makes money but by hotel-keeping; and his capacities in the one direction are as likely as not to unfit him for the other. Hence many teachers, doubting their economical skill, do not like to set up a boarding establishment. Others, loving privacy and leisure for their own studies, dislike it because it leaves them no rest. Others are unmarried, and therefore cannot attempt it; or their wives may not have health sufficient for the labours of housekeeping

* In one case a head-master's profit from day boys is returned as 820*l.*, but in this case the head-master has to pay large salaries to his staff. His receipts from the endowment are very small.

† Both in this and the former case I take into account school expenses only.

which it entails. Thus it is not fair to take any account of boarders in estimating the prospects which the profession opens up to a man proposing to enter it. To what extent fortunes are made by boarding schools I could not ascertain. But, in Lancashire at least, they are rare, and there are only two branches which can be considered really lucrative,—that of keeping schools for little boys, preparatory to the public schools, and that of small "cramming" schools for the various public examinations. In the latter exceedingly high fees are charged: in the former the expense of assistant masters is comparatively low. Both therefore are, when well handled, very profitable. But Lancashire has few establishments of the former class, and, so far as I know, none of the latter.

The influence, then, of the opportunity of taking boarders in improving the pecuniary prospects of teachers is not very great. Such as it is, it ought not to be taken into account. The profession cannot be pronounced remunerative until the master of a day school, pure and simple, is able to win an income equal to that which a person of like talents, character, and education gains from other occupations. This is far from being the case now, but until it is the case it is not to be expected that men of activity and ambition will enter a path so uninviting. Least of all is it to be expected in Lancashire, where business offers so many openings to an enterprising spirit, and where the extraordinary wealth amassed by the fortunate is a constant temptation to young men to try their luck in the same direction. For it is the peculiar misfortune of the scholastic profession that while the average value of its posts is not great, it has absolutely no prizes. The most honourable and lucrative of its places—the masterships in the great public schools—are inaccessible to the ordinary schoolmaster, whatever his merits; they are given to young men who go to them straight from the University. There is thus little or no connexion between the teachers of the highest (*i.e.*, richest) class in England, and those of the great bulk of the mercantile and professional community, and how much the educational profession suffers by the severance may be seen by comparing its state with that of the clerical or the medical, bodies animated throughout by a feeling of fellowship which raises the poorer members without depressing the higher.

Want of great prizes.

The schoolmasters with whom I conversed, while lamenting the evils of their position, its hard work, poor pay, and unsatisfactory social standing, did not seem prepared to propose any specific remedies. Some thought that the profession would rise in public esteem if thoroughly purged of unworthy members, and hoped to effect this by a system of registration. Others desired inspection of schools by Government or the universities, arguing that the social status of endowed schoolmasters arose chiefly from their being, in a sense, public functionaries, and that whatever gave a public character to other schools would improve their tone and raise the position of their teachers. Probably neither these nor

Suggestions of schoolmasters towards the bettering of their condition.

any other secondary measures will avail much without a considerable rise in the emoluments and power of the teacher.

Whether such a rise can be brought about is another question, but till it comes there is little prospect of improvement. It is the schoolmaster that makes the school; it is mental vigour and culture that make the good schoolmaster; it is, at least in modern England, the pecuniary prospects of a profession* that draw mental vigour and culture towards it. Like other things they have their price, and are not generally to be bought at the price which parents now offer.

Expedients presently possible.

Meantime there are two measures which seem to be at present urgently called for. They would remedy some of the evils which the scholastic body complains of, and would put it in a position to abate the others for itself.

To increase the number among teachers of persons having received a university education.

The first of these is the cheapening of the old universities.† To take a degree with honours, a man must live for at least four years at Oxford, three and a half at Cambridge, and during that time he will, if he lives like other people, spend 180*l.* to 240*l.* per annum; if he chooses a cheap college and practises strict economy, at least 130*l.* He may, it is true, gain a scholarship of from 50*l.* to 90*l.* per annum, but as all scholarships are given by competition, and are chiefly to be won by proficiency in classics, especially in Greek and Latin composition, a boy whose father has not been able to afford an expensive school, where Latin and Greek composition are well taught, has but little prospect of success. Practically, therefore, a university education is accessible only to the rich, or to those who are fortunate enough to have lived in the neighbourhood of a first-rate grammar school.

Now one cannot expect the sons of the rich, having spent from 600*l.* to 1,000*l.* and upwards on their education at Oxford or Cambridge, and having there contracted luxurious and expensive habits, to bring themselves to begin work low down on the educational ladder, at a salary of 120*l.* They are less willing than formerly to take orders, so poor are a curate's prospects; much less then to become schoolmasters at any lower salary than 200*l.* or 250*l.* That it is desirable to have a greater number of university men teachers hardly requires proof. Unpractical they may often be, but they have been brought within the reach of the best education, and acted on by the most stimulating intellectual influences that England affords; and their presence in the profession would do much to raise the tone of its members and its status in the eyes of the world. It is no depreciation to the University of London to say that it cannot do what Oxford and

* The increase of literates seems to show that the clerical profession is less an exception to this rule than people have been accustomed to suppose.

† It is proper to dwell chiefly on the cheapening of the universities, since their expense is at present the greatest obstacle to their being used more largely by persons not belonging to the wealthy classes. But my informants in Lancashire declared that even this would avail but little unless the emoluments of the university were thrown open without distinctions of religious creed; and some added that they thought it would be also necessary to give a somewhat wider range to university studies.

Cambridge can do. An examining body tests knowledge; a teaching body may form the mind and character.

To provide systematic instruction in the science and art of teaching.

The second is the provision, for persons intending to become teachers, of a systematic instruction in the art of education. The Government training colleges have proved, had there ever been any doubt on the matter, the utility of such instruction. The range of the "trained master" is limited, but within that range his superiority to the untrained (having received the same general education) is as incontestable as the superiority of the needle-gun to muzzle-loaders. There does not seem to be any reason why the principles applied with so much success to elementary teaching should not also be applied to the higher subjects; and the better general education of teachers who themselves come from a higher social class would protect them from the besetting fault of the certificated masters, a tendency to apply their rules in a mechanical and unvarying way, a self-complacent acquiescence in superficial knowledge. If in cheapening the universities provisions were made for giving such instruction there, by the establishment of lectures in what the Germans call Pädagogik, and the institution of some body empowered to grant certificates of fitness for the work of teaching, a great benefit would be conferred upon the education of those classes to whom your attention is specially directed.

It ought, however, to be understood by what sort of a special preparation it is that teachers would be benefited. Its efficiency would of course be limited. No training will make a good teacher out of a dull man; a certain amount of intelligence, and of what is perhaps best described as a patient vivacity, will be just as necessary as it was before. Nor will the need of a superior general culture be at all diminished, since in truth any profitable instruction in the art of teaching, as applied to the higher branches, must presuppose and be built upon such culture. But in the course of my visits to schools I constantly saw, or seemed to see, passably good teachers who would have been greatly the better for a little knowledge of their art—men not of such commanding ability as to extemporize an art of teaching for themselves, yet clever enough and interested enough in their work to turn to good account any suggestions and directions they might receive. Take the most obvious case, that of young men who, after taking a degree, perhaps with honours, at the university, are appointed to the first or second mastership in a school where the education given must be mainly commercial. These teachers often confine their attention to classics and mathematics. They have little idea of the value of arithmetic as a means of mental training, and often leave it to the writing master's care. They have learnt no geography since their own school days, and either think it beneath them or teach it in a perfunctory way, not bringing into relief the things which it is most important for a boy to know, not touching his imagination, not showing him its relations to history or to the sciences of nature. The idea does not cross their minds of making the teaching of English grammar

play into that of Latin, nor of making a boy's knowledge of Latin help him on in French. Even if themselves competent mathematicians, their teaching of mathematics is lifeless—a monotonous plodding through Euclid and Colenso's algebra, without a spark of that keen intellectual pleasure which French teachers, if report says true, manage to throw around the study. In a word, their own interest in teaching is the interest of scholars, not of teachers. They care for the higher walks of a subject where their own powers are called out; they do not enjoy, since they do not understand, the process of teaching itself—the art of quickening and feeding a child's natural desire for knowledge, of awakening its intellectual consciousness, of forming habits of inquiry and reflection. It is too much to expect that all or even most teachers can be led to take an interest in this process for its own sake; nevertheless, some would go through it better when they had once been accustomed to regard it as an object of science, and none could fail to be benefited by the suggestions of a person who united practical experience to a truly philosophical mind. There would hardly be found, if the value of such special culture were once recognized, so many teachers in the grammar schools who are not teachers, but only scholars or mathematicians. Results greater than these it is perhaps utopian to look for; but results such as these it were well worth while to have.

CHAPTER VI.

State of Education in Lancashire.

Having in the earlier parts of this report described each class of schools separately—the endowed, the private adventure, and the proprietary, I propose, in conclusion, to attempt to sum up and present a connected view of the phenomena which you directed me to observe in Lancashire, speaking not of the schools, but of the education, not of the machinery employed, but of the result—of what may be called the manufactured article. The manufactured article is, in this case, the Lancashire boy when he enters a trade or profession; and the condition of his mind and character at that moment—his capacity for success in his calling, and, above all, for becoming an upright and useful citizen, is the best test of the excellence of the machinery which exists for forming him.

Four districts to be treated separately.

The county of Lancaster, as has been already remarked, contains within a narrow compass districts differing so considerably in their social and economical conditions that it cannot properly be described as a whole. It seems better, therefore, even at the risk of some repetitions, to describe separately the educational state of each of four divisions—(I.) the rural district; (II.) Manchester; (III.) Liverpool; and (IV.) the manufacturing towns—Preston, Bolton, Blackburn, Oldham, and others—with their villages.

I.—The Rural Districts.

Character of the rural parts of Lancashire.

England presents no greater contrast than that which strikes the traveller who passes from the noisy and strenuous life of the manufacturing towns into the country parts of Lancashire—into the mountain solitudes of Coniston and the Vale of Duddon, or the lonely flats of the Fylde, a sandy plain stretching from Preston to the Irish sea, wherein no object, save now and then a windmill, catches the eye, and the very roads—rude tracks paved in the centre with round distressful stones, seem, like the dull and sluggish peasantry, to have stood unchanged and unimproved for centuries. Here, and in the valley of the Lune, and still more in the districts of Furness and Cartmel (to the north-west of Morecambe Bay), a large though steadily decreasing quantity of land remains in the hands of the small freeholders, or, as they are called in the north, the statesmen. These men are little better off than their neighbours the small tenant farmers, who cultivate only some forty or fifty acres of land; and both live in the most primitive fashion, have little education, and are immoveably conservative in all their ideas and usages. The new race of capitalist farmers has not invaded these recesses; son succeeds to father on the old farm, tills it in the old way, refuses to hear of thrashing machines, and will not be persuaded to go to church more than once a year, on Easter Sunday; if an ambitious spirit arises, he

The inhabitants: the yeomen and tenant farmers.

bends his steps southward to seek the great towns. The whole enterprise of Lancashire seems to have turned with so strong a stream into the channel of manufacturing industry that none has been left to reclaim the waste places of the country.

In one way, however, the neighbourhood of flourishing towns has affected even these solitudes. Wages are much higher in Lancashire than in the west or south of England. In most parts of Shropshire, Monmouth, and Hereford, an agricultural labourer is thought well paid at 12*s.* a week (including what he receives in kind); in Lancashire he obtains on an average from 14*s.* to 16*s.* Abject wretchedness, like that which we hear of in Dorset or Wilts, is unknown: at least where it exists it must be the result of drunkenness or of flagrant improvidence. Thus, what with the high price of labour and the smallness of the farms, there is less difference in Lancashire than elsewhere between the farmer and the day labourer. The farmer lives as plainly, works as hard, is almost as ill educated, and does not look down upon the labourer with that contempt which his more substantial brethren of the central and southern parts of England are apt to feel towards the more helpless and poverty-stricken peasantry of those regions. Hence, too, his children associate on equal terms with the children of the labourer, and receive an education little, if at all, better. Now and then, it is true, a farmer may let his son stay a year or two longer at school: he may even send him to board at a distance. But at least as frequently it happens that, doing most of the field work by means of his own family, he takes the boy to help him at 10 or 11 to save the wages of a farm servant, while the cottager's son, for whose services there is no such demand, is not disturbed at his studies. In Lancashire, therefore, there is not any class of schools specially used by farmers, nor has the need for such schools been as yet felt. The education of the rural districts, excluding a few dames' schools, the last and swiftly expiring representatives of their order, is entirely in the hands of the Privy Council schools and the Endowed schools.

Little social separation betwixt farmer and labourer.

Schools in the rural districts.

With the Privy Council schools I have nothing to do. Of the endowed a good deal has been said already (*supra*, Chapter I.) in describing their constitution, management, and organization as a class. It is only of their practical results that I desire to speak here. Some of these country endowed schools were founded as classical, some were not, but in most cases the distinction has long since disappeared, and practically they may be considered as one class. The area of the three most purely rural hundreds of Lancashire—Lonsdale (south and north of the Sands), Amounderness and Leyland is about 540,000 acres, and in this area there are 40* schools described (in the Charity Commission Digest) as classical, or one for every 13,500 acres. Their aggregate gross income (I speak again of these three hundreds only) is 3915*l.*, and the average income of each 97*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* Some few have kept up a little

The endowed Schools.

* Preston lies in the hundred of Amounderness, but as it belongs naturally to the manufacturing district, I exclude its grammar school from consideration.

classics,* but the great majority are educationally as well as socially elementary schools. The better ones are, with two or three exceptions, on a level with an average Privy Council school, the lower ones worse than any Privy Council school. The reason is not far to seek. They are uninspected, and hence the merits of the teaching are never tested; their masters are uncertificated, and have never been trained to teach; being supported out of their own funds they have no one whose duty or interest compels him to look after them. In private schools the teacher is at least obliged to satisfy the parents on whom he depends; in Privy Council schools the managers must purchase the annual grant by providing proper school buildings and securing, so far as they can, the regular attendance of the children. The charity school fares ill in all these respects. Its buildings have been described already; there is generally a melancholy and forsaken look about them which speaks for itself. In form they are a plain oblong, built of greyish stone, blackened by the rains of many winters, and contrasting painfully with the trim new building in which a Government school is usually held, with its clean brick, faced with stone, its porch, and its wide Elizabethan windows. Inside the comparison is still more to their disadvantage. The interior of no country school is pleasant to the senses, but the higher roof and good ventilation of the Government schools diminish the effect of bemudded boots and trowsers, and of the neglect of personal cleanliness. The endowed school is usually close almost to suffocation, foul and ill-scented beyond all description. As respects education, the superiority of the Government school is less manifest, for good teaching is what no external machinery, not even the elaborate machinery of the Committee of Council, can secure. Every here and there an energetic master is found, who does his best without needing the stimulus of inspection; or an energetic clergyman, whose exhortations and sympathy spur on the master, and keep the school up to the mark. Still, after making all allowances, the condition of the rural endowed schools will appear to be distinctly worse than that of schools receiving Government aid. They display all the faults of the old country schools before the rise of the Privy Council system, and all those against whose continued existence the Revised Code was directed. The attendance of their scholars is most irregular, and hence it is constantly necessary either to suspend certain classes, or to keep back children who come daily that they may not outstrip those who come but twice or thrice a week. Their staff is inadequate, and although there are seldom funds to pay a competent assistant master, the pupil-teacher system is for the most part unknown. There is little attempt at a systematic organization of classes and subjects, the teachers being ignorant either of the importance of system, or of the means of carrying it out. Many old-fashioned methods and school books, long since banished from inspected schools, are still in use, while

Almost all merely elementary.

Their frequent inefficiency, and its causes.

Their buildings.

Their educational character.

Usually inferior to Privy Council Schools.

* I have included in the 40 the grammar schools at Lancaster, Kirkham, Chorley, and Cartmel, but as these are town schools the remarks which immediately follow must be understood as not applying to them.

few of the modern improvements have been introduced. The art of class teaching, for instance, is hardly known, and arithmetic is taught as it was taught in the days of Cocker or Walkinghame. In all the work done there is a want of briskness and smartness; a want also of that good order and quietness which is generally to be found in schools conducted by trained masters. And, lastly, cases sometimes occur of gross neglect of duty by a teacher, whom there is no one empowered, perhaps no one willing, to reprimand or dismiss.

Countervailing merits of the rural endowed schools.

Against these evils there are but two merits to be pleaded in behalf of the rural endowed schools. They are more independent than the Privy Council schools, and they are less distinctively plebeian. The teacher need not court the smiles of the incumbent nor tremble at the frown of the inspector. He is not tempted to resort to any of those tricks, by which, if rumour is to be trusted, the managers and schoolmasters in Government schools so frequently throw dust in the inspector's eyes. Neither he nor the children whom he teaches are degraded into the position of paupers, to whom the State, like a relieving officer, flings money for education. Nor is he obliged to shape his arrangements according to a rule imposed from without, and abandon the teaching of the higher subjects to win head money by passing the greatest number in the three necessary subjects. Hence it has happened, and happens occasionally, though more rarely, even now, that men are found in these foundation schools of a spirit and capacity not to be looked for among certificated masters. People who would be ashamed to become teachers in National or British schools do not object on social grounds to take an endowed school, however poor the children in it may be. And when it does happen that a really good man gets an endowed school, his teaching is often of a high kind. He may not bring quite so many children up to a certain point in reading, writing, and arithmetic as his rival in the Privy Council school does, but he implants in a few, at least, some germs of culture—some slight knowledge of and interest in the higher subjects—the benefit whereof is not lost in after life. I have met with persons, for instance, who having learnt Latin in one of these petty endowed schools, were encouraged to carry on their studies, and enter professions, or fit themselves to become, in their turn, thoroughly efficient masters of similar schools. Men of some culture, it is true, may also be found here and there among the certificated masters (unfavourable as the conditions of their training are to its growth), but they seem to gravitate exclusively towards the towns, where the salaries are higher. And thus the Government teachers in country places, although a hard-working and useful set of men, are yet, as a rule, uneducated (in the true sense of the word)—wanting in thorough knowledge on any one subject, and wanting still more in intellectual tastes and aspirations.

Occasional superiority of their teachers to the "trained masters."

Instances.

As an instance of what I mean, it may be well to give a brief notice of two schools, both in the main elementary, and one of them labouring under great disadvantages.

Bispham-in-the-Fylde.

Bispham is a hamlet on the shore of the Irish Sea, two or three miles north of the flourishing watering place of Black-

pool, the only spot all along this flat and weary coast where a cliff, or rather bank of earth, makes it possible to have a genuine sea view. The endowed school has an income of 113*l.* gross, about 70*l.* nett, per annum, which, with the pence paid by a few extra-parochial children, and the use of a miserable residence, may make the post worth in all some 90*l.* or 100*l.* The building is an old house, through whose thatched roof the rain penetrates in winter, dropping all over the desks, and gathering in pools upon the floor. The room is very small, $30\frac{1}{2}$ feet by $14\frac{1}{2}$ by $7\frac{1}{2}$ high to the spring of the roof, and the air so foul that I was obliged to keep the door open while examining the children, and to conduct my conversation with the teacher in the scrap of ground that serves for a playground in front. In winter, when it may happen that 70 children are gathered together, and required to breathe in some 4,450 cubic feet of air,* the closeness must be intolerable. On the day of my visit there were but 20 boys and 12 girls present, about one-third of whom were the children of labourers, the rest of those small tenant farmers and yeomen who have been already described as scarcely raised above the grade of labourers, and of the petty shopkeepers and craftsmen of the village. It was early in September, so the elder scholars were mostly at work in the fields, and one could not well judge of the merits of the teaching from the performances of those who were submitted to examination. Of the common subjects some appeared to be handled well and some indifferently. The reading and spelling were good; the writing scratchy; the arithmetic poor, and taught, so far as I could judge, in an old-fashioned way. No one was learning Latin, although the master was competent to teach it, and had before now taken the boys through Cæsar. But the characteristic feature of the school was one which I had least expected to find in such a place. The small and wretched room was filled in every available corner by stuffed beasts and birds; geological diagrams hung upon the walls; shelves were loaded and drawers filled with collections of fossils and minerals. In answer to my look of surprise, the master explained that he was an ardent naturalist; he had collected all these things himself, and used them in his teaching, giving a lesson to the whole school four afternoons in every week. The children, he believed, liked natural history, and profited by it; many who seemed dull at other subjects took kindly to it, and rambled abroad under his directions to make collections for themselves of plants and of such fossils or specimens of rock as could be picked up along the beach. At my request he proceeded to examine the boys and girls present in botany, geology, and zoology, and both to his questions and to those which I added they answered with a readiness, an intelligence, an evident enjoyment of the subject, which left little to be desired. They had an excellent notion, for instance, of the classification of plants, and on being shown specimens of rocks, named them correctly, and stated what was their place in the order of the strata. Whether the com-

* This would give about 64 cubic feet of air per child.

mon elementary subjects had been neglected for the sake of natural history was a point which the absence of the older scholars made it impossible for me to determine precisely. The clergyman of the parish (not a trustee), on whom I went to call, declared that they had not, and added that the natural history itself, as well as the general culture of the master, had done a great deal for the village in every way, giving the children an intelligent interest in all that they saw around them, and making the master a potent influence for good among the people. Many farmers' boys, it seemed, even of 17 or 18 years of age, came back during the winter months to the school, and learnt enough to raise perceptibly the character of the neighbourhood.

The circumstances of this school are illustrative in many ways. It had been left almost to itself; the trustees, only one of whom was resident, taking, as I was informed, no interest in it, refusing to rebuild or repair it, and even leaving the master to supply desks at his own expense. It was free to the township, and the children living out of the township, who were socially of the same class as the rest, paid 6*s.* a quarter without grumbling, and attended more regularly than the others, although they had a longer distance to come. Lastly, it seemed to show in union the strong and the weak side of the endowed as compared with the Privy Council school. Such a master would hardly have been found in a country Government school at all. If he had been found there, he would have taught arithmetic and writing better, and he would certainly have had the satisfaction of teaching in a room fit for human habitation. But his time would have been too completely absorbed in bringing the children up to the "Standards" of the Revised Code, to let him stray into the regions of natural history, which he taught so excellently well, and to the so great profit of the neighbourhood. The idea suggests itself that it would be desirable, if it be possible, to combine the comparative independence and flexibility of the foundation school, with the security against incompetence, and the power of introducing the best methods and keeping the teacher abreast of the time, which a system of inspection provides.

Abbeystead. Abbeystead is a vaccary (chapelry of Overwyersdale and parish of Lancaster), in the upper valley of the Wyre, where it is still a clear mountain stream running between the green hills that form the border-land of Yorkshire and Lancashire. Its school, founded in A.D. 1683 by William Cawthorne, enjoys a revenue of 170*l.* gross (150*l.* nett) per annum, and is open free of charge to all boys and girls residing within the twelve vaccaries of Overwyersdale. In winter the attendance averages about 60; in summer, and especially during the turf-cutting season, it is much smaller. A Chancery scheme of 1854 abolished its classical character, prescribing only the ordinary subjects of an English education. I found the instruction, however, both better and more comprehensive than that of most country National schools. Reading, writing, and arithmetic were all excellent; questions in geography and grammar were answered creditably; English composition, a subject so much neglected in most schools, was taught in a clear and sensible way; some few boys learnt Euclid and Algebra; and

shortly before my visit one scholar had been taken through trigonometry and conic sections. The neatness and the behaviour, as well as the general intelligence of the children, were exceptionally good, and witnessed to the energy and skill of the master, who had no assistance except that which his wife gave in teaching the girls to sew and do patchwork in the afternoons. He had received the elements of his education in a National school; but he was virtually a self-taught man, having gone from school at an early age into a factory, and afterwards, when sickness or some accident (I forget which) had turned him to another mode of life, having applied himself to study, and then picked up this appointment. It is possible, of course, that a man so placed might have obtained a Government certificate, and sought a mastership in a Government school; but this would have been very unlikely, and it is therefore natural to attribute his presence here to the absence of those strict regulations enforced by the Committee of Council.* So too, in a school receiving a grant, it would have been impossible to do so much as was done here, and done with good results, in the way of teaching the higher subjects. Euclid and English composition, perhaps even geography and history, would have been sacrificed to the passing of the greatest possible number of children in the requisite standards; and when that had been done, the teacher would have been satisfied. Being left to his own devices, he superadded all this to a teaching of the three elementary subjects as good as any inspector could wish.†

The circumstances of this school are, of course, no argument against the propriety of insisting on certificates, or against the stress laid by the Revised Code on reading, writing, and arithmetic. The testimony even of those clergymen who had been at first most hostile to the Code was conclusive as to the need that had existed for it, and to its generally beneficial effects. What cases like Abbeystead and Bispham do seem to show is this, that the comparative independence of the foundation school, which has produced so many evils, must be admitted to have here and there produced benefits—benefits too slight, indeed, to justify the maintenance of the endowed schools in their present state, yet such as may serve to indicate the characteristic weakness of the Privy Council system—which is, after all, a mechanical system—and to suggest a possible element of excellence in the more free and flexible schools of the future.

These cases exceptions: inefficiency and neglect the rule.

Cases, however, like Abbeystead and Bispham, if not quite singular, are certainly rare; and against them must be set a long array of schools where abuses outweigh services—where corruption in former days and neglect continuing till now have perverted to evil the charitable intent of founders. A few of these it may be proper to mention.

Pilling.

The township of Pilling is a very large one, lying along the

* The salary which the funds of the school enable the trustees to offer would now be sufficient to procure a certificated master as good as the best in towns; but this was not the case when the present master was appointed.

† The school is, according to the scheme, open to inspection, but is not inspected.

coast between the mouth of the Lune and that of the Wyre. In what is called its "lower end"*—not physically lower, for all Pilling is as flat as a table—stands a school founded in A.D. 1710, and endowed with lands now worth nearly 100*l.* a year. The school is a small building of mud and sticks 16 feet by 14, by about 8 high, the roof of thatch, the floor of rough round stones, with some puddles interspersed when the weather is wet. At the time of my visit eight boys and seven girls were being taught in it; the total number on the books being 31. They were all labourers' children and paid nothing,† except four who came from beyond the limits of the free district (the "lower end of Pilling"). Some of the best scholars were said to be away (this, strangely enough, was stated to be the case in a great number of the schools visited), and certainly they might easily have been better than those present, of whom only one boy (aged 14) could do any but the very simplest questions in arithmetic; while none, except the same boy, and he with great hesitation, were thought by the master capable of an easy piece of dictation. The reading was indifferent; geography and grammar, so far as I could ascertain, did not exist. The writing alone could be pronounced tolerable. Several gentlemen in the neighbourhood claimed, as I was informed, to be trustees, but the master doubted if they had been legally appointed. Practically he had been left to himself for many years; had kept sometimes nearly the whole and always part of the school lands in his own hand, and farmed it so well that the property had considerably increased in value. He was a sensible man, respected by the people, and perhaps not incompetent as far as knowledge went; but he was old, the place was secluded, no one had ever done anything for the school or shown any interest in it, and in this way it had been allowed to drop to the wretched state in which I found it. Its income, at present useless, would have been more than sufficient to provide a good education for 60 or 80 children. No case could show more strongly the need for inspection.‡

Tunstal free school stands in the valley of the Lune, two or three miles from the Hornby station of the Midland Railway. In a small and dark room I found seven or eight children, boys and girls, all under 10 years of age. None had learnt arithmetic, not even the multiplication table; nor grammar, nor geography, nor scripture. The reading was poor; one boy and one girl spelt passably well. The trustees were landowners in the neighbourhood, but for some reason or other they did not seem to have done anything to improve the school, whether unaware of its condition, or not thinking it worth while to stir during the incumbency of the then master. The master himself was a worthy man, and apparently Tunstal.

* Now annexed to the township of Preesall with Hackensall.

† The scale of fees for non-foundationers was, first, reading alone, 5*d.* per week; for reading and writing, 7*d.*; reading, writing, and arithmetic, 10*d.*; for instruction in the higher branches, 1*s.*

‡ There was a National school at no great distance, but many of the people preferred the free school, disliking, as I was told, the risings up and sittings down of the Government school, its singing, and exercising, and roll-calling, and, above all, the pupil teachers.

not ignorant, but he was old and indolent; he had no idea of what teaching ought to be, and seemed to let things go as they would, without making any effort to improve them. The endowment was not large, only some 31*l.* per annum, but it might just as well have not existed, for the school was doing nothing for the parish; unless indeed that it kept a few children from going to other schools, where they might have picked up some few scraps of knowledge.

Bretherton.

Bretherton is a village in the parish of Croston, lying in the flat lands south of the estuary of the Ribble, between Preston and Ormskirk. Its school has an income of 84*l.* per annum, and is entirely free, except that 1*s.* a year is paid for firing. The rooms are abominably small and close; the playground and outhouses are quite inadequate. 41 boys were present on the day of my visit; about one half of them the sons of small farmers, one half of labourers. Only six (ages 9 to 13) could attempt any questions in arithmetic beyond the four simple rules; their work was very slow and bad. About 10 could read the New Testament with some ease; the rest read ill; could not write down figures from dictation, nor say the multiplication table. Spelling was very poor. The teacher was a native of the parish, and had been appointed to the school when an accident had disabled him from work. He was a steady and well-meaning man, but quite unfit for his post. In the girls' school, which is held in an adjacent room, there were 38 children, 6 of whom could read the third Irish book fairly. They knew the multiplication table better than the boys, but were equally ignorant of arithmetical notation.

Osmotherly.

In the district of Furness, some three miles north of Ulverston, lies the hamlet of Osmotherly, or, as it is more commonly called, Broughton Beck. Here, in a valley among the low moory hills into which the great mountain group of Cumbria sinks at its southern extremity, is a small endowed school. Information received in Ulverston induced me to visit it, although, being described in the Charity Commission Digest as non-classical, it did not seem, in strictness, to fall within my province. Driving thither at 10 o'clock in the forenoon, I met groups of children coming down the steep lane that led up to it from the village, and found on reaching the building itself that it was closed, and no person about the premises. Inquiries in the village enabled me at last to discover the farmhouse where the master lodged. His landlady said he had gone off a day or two before, no one knew where, though no one doubted for what purpose. Every now and then, it seemed, a sort of fit or fancy came upon him; he left the school, and went roaming round the public-houses of the neighbourhood; the children came in the morning for a day or two, and then, finding the school shut, returned home. After a week or a fortnight he would appear at school again. The children would get word of it, and teaching would be resumed till the occurrence of the next fit. The trustees were statesmen (*i.e.* small landowners) in the neighbourhood; they had remonstrated and had even thought of dismissing him, but he begged off, and they let things go on. He was not a bad

teacher, they said, knew Latin and mathematics, and had sometimes as many as 50 or 60 boys. They admitted, however, that such an intermittent school was useless, and that the endowment, about 29*l.* per annum, might as well have been away.

All these, except the school last mentioned, are cases of endowed schools described as classical. As I had no authority to visit those which rank as non-classical, I cannot say much about their state from personal observation. What I did see, however, and what I heard from trustworthy witnesses, led me to believe that their condition is at least as bad as that of the smaller classical endowed schools, of which I have just been speaking.

The cases which I have described are not by any means exceptional. In many others, as well as in them, an endowment appears to have been, of late years, not simply useless, but deleterious. Maintaining these wretched schools in some sort of existence, it has prevented the establishment of those new schools which districts previously unprovided for have obtained from local zeal and by the aid of the State. Two or three hundred years ago, charitable founders did their best to benefit the country by setting up every here and there, in places for which they had some particular regard, centres of education and enlightenment. Those places have now become the darkest. Deserted by the better class of people, neglected by their trustees, having lost their hold, such as it was, upon classics, and on the superior men who came to teach classics, finding it more and more difficult to withstand the demand which labour makes upon the time of children, these rural endowed schools have undergone an irresistible though insensible change, and have sunk, in the great majority of cases, into elementary schools of the lowest grade.

Transformation of Endowed into National Schools.

The change, however, has not been the same in all cases, for while some have remained independent, others have been transmuted by application to the Court of Chancery, or by the sole action of their trustees, into National schools under Government inspection. The tradition of classical instruction had almost died out from among them, and the clergy, having begun of late years to hold themselves responsible for the education of their parishes, thought it their first business to provide a Church of England school for the poor. They, therefore, laid hands on the endowed school, repaired or rebuilt it in conformity with the requisitions of the Privy Council, and applied for a grant. Frequently, perhaps in most cases, the change was an improvement. The certificated master is not a superior man to the endowed schoolmaster of the old type, but he practically teaches better, since he has had some little training and is under the stimulus of inspection. His discipline is less harsh, he knows the new methods of instruction, he has the great advantage of teaching in a better building. Something, however, has also been lost. Under the provisions of the Revised Code the grant awarded to a school is diminished in amount or refused, in proportion to the value of its endowment; hence a well endowed school cannot claim a grant on inspection, and a moderately endowed one (*i.e.*, with from 30*l.* to 60*l.* per

Effect of the change.

annum), profits little by it, unless the attendance is very large.* The character of the school, moreover, is definitely and finally lowered. Practically, it is true, its instruction had already become elementary, and it had been used mainly or wholly by children of the labouring classes. But the higher subjects were not, as they are in National schools, excluded; † the school was not, as it becomes under the grant system, a sort of pauper establishment, nor were it and its teacher handed over to the clergyman to be governed at his pleasure.

In thinly peopled country districts it may be said that there neither is nor is ever likely to be a demand for superior education, while the difficulty of obtaining subscriptions to found a Privy Council school is very great. But it is not only in such districts that this nationalization of the schools has taken place, nor do the Court of Chancery and Charity Commissioners seem to have looked closely into the peculiar circumstances of each place, and guided their action accordingly. A case may illustrate this. At Dalton-in-Furness there had been for a long time past a grammar school with an endowment of about 140*l.* per annum; at one time a place of some reputation, but latterly unprosperous—the master having been, as masters in North Lancashire unfortunately so often are, a person of intemperate habits. Either seeing no use for it as a grammar school, or despairing of reforms which would make it useful, the vicar and one or two other persons in the place invoked the Charity Commissioners, obtained from them a scheme, and got the endowment applied to the founding of a National school under inspection. This was several years ago. These schools, I am informed, are well conducted and educate a great number of children of the working class. Meantime, however, little Dalton has grown through the iron mines and furnaces that lie near it to be a thriving town; a population has sprung up needing a superior commercial, or even partially classical, education, and the old grammar school, which ought to have provided such education under public supervision, is lost and gone. A little more public spirit on the part of wealthy people might have provided elementary schools without touching the endowment, just as they have been provided in places where no endowment existed, and the grammar school would now have had the opportunity of conferring great benefits—greater than private schools can confer—upon an important town and district.‡

Dalton-in-Furness Grammar School.

Something similar to this has happened in a great many places in Lancashire,—at Urswick, Lowick, Cockerham, Clifton, Halsall, Standish, and others which I need not enumerate. And the same process is going on in the West of England, probably

* I do not of course enter on the question of the propriety of such a rule as a national affair, but only desire to show its effect in diminishing the gain to any endowed school.

† Excluded by the working of the Revised Code, even though not by its words; and virtually excluded by the system of passing in the standard even in those endowed National schools where new schemes profess to retain higher subjects.

‡ Barrow-in-Furness has a population of more than 10,000, and is only a quarter of an hour, by rail, from Dalton. It has no grammar school.

indeed over the whole country.* All these Endowed schools were practically elementary, the clergyman was naturally anxious to have an efficient school for the poor, and to have it under his own eye; the trustees, seeing that there was little or no demand for a superior education, were willing to fall in with his views, and the Court of Chancery, finding no local opposition made to the proposed scheme, used the power given them by the Act 3 & 4 Vict. c. 77, and abolished (expressly or implicitly) the classical character of the foundation. In each case it is probable that the school is really more useful now than it was in its independent uninspected state; and so far the change, despite the obvious defects of the Privy Council system, has been a change for the better. It does not follow, however, that it is the best or fairest course that might have been taken (or ought in future to be taken), or that the foundation is now turned to proper account. Since the endowment merely does for one parish what a larger grant and local subscriptions do for another, the founder's liberality has turned ont to be of no service, and might, if we look only at the place which he wished to benefit, have been spared altogether. As far as the Privy Council grant is concerned, this may be right enough; it is every one's interest that the public money should be saved. With regard to subscriptions it is otherwise, for there is no reason why the wealthy people of one locality should be relieved from a duty which is recognized by those who hold the same position and enjoy the same power and influence in other places. It would seem indeed that there is nothing so hard as to make charitable funds benefit those for whom they were intended. Every one knows to how great an extent almshouses and doles to the poor have been applied towards the reduction of rates, that is to say, to relieve the burdens on property. In precisely the same way the advantage of these educational endowments, in places where they are applied to National schools, is reaped not by the poor, but by the landowners and other well-to-do people, who are delivered from the necessity of aiding by ever so small a subscription in the instruction of the labouring population around them.

Cases of rural schools not nationalized.

Where the school, remaining elementary, has not been placed under Government inspection, the results have been substantially the same. The "free school," or schools, for there are sometimes several near together, has been allowed to do duty for the National school, and no one seems to have thought of building a Government school, and applying the foundation revenues to benefit education in some other way. If these revenues are very large, they are perhaps used in building a girls' school, or in supplying the scholars not only with instruction gratis, but also with school books, slates, and whatever else that can be needed, thereby conferring, of course, no real benefit upon the labouring class. One case in point is too remarkable to pass unnoticed.

* See reports upon the schools of Hanley Castle, Martley and Wolverley in Worcestershire, upon those of Presteign, Cwm Toyddwr, Bala and Llan Egryn in Wales, and upon that of Llantilio Crossenny in Monmouthshire.

Penwortham.

In the parish of Penwortham, adjoining on the south-west that of Preston, a grammar school was founded by Christopher Walton in the year 1552, and endowed with lands whose annual value has now risen to nearly 1,000*l.* Finding themselves unable to spend all this sum upon their one school, the trustees have erected four branch schools, (three with separate departments for boys and girls), wherein elementary instruction is provided free of charge. Meantime the old grammar school is maintained in its old site, giving a commercial and partly classical education to such sons of farmers and of the better class of labourers as may choose to come for it. This education is tolerably, but not more than tolerably, good, while the branch schools, two of which I saw, are below the level of Government schools in places similarly circumstanced, partly, no doubt, because they are uninspected. The whole endowment is spent within the parish itself, whose population is 5,488, and its effect is simply to save the poor people from paying the penny or twopence a week which they would pay at National schools, and to relieve the farmers and landowners from the subscriptions which would otherwise be expected from them. Except as regards the central grammar school, where only some 20 boys were receiving instruction in the higher subjects, the parish is not, with this 1,000*l.* annually of endowment, perceptibly better educated than other parishes with no endowment at all. No one can blame the trustees, who have merely applied the funds in the way that first occurred to them, and have applied them all to education. But the general result is quite unworthy of the sum spent.*

Grammar Schools in the Towns.

Small grammar schools in the country towns.

Besides these rural schools there are in most of the smaller country towns, places like Hawkshead, Cartmel, Kirkham, Ormskirk, Prescot, and Widnes, foundation schools whose action upon the neighbouring country makes it proper to speak of them in this connexion. Their circumstances have altered greatly in the last forty years. Early in this century they were the only places of education in the towns where they lie, and so used to receive boys of every class, teaching to most or all of them—without any fee save a cock-penny—Latin and perhaps Greek as well. They were also the only schools accessible to the clergy and gentry of the neighbourhood, and so were often filled by the sons of the lesser squires as well as the doctors, solicitors, land agents, and so forth, all over the district. Thus Hawkshead was in Wordsworth's days the classical school for Westmoreland and North Lancashire; thus, boys gathered from all the southern and eastern parts of the country to the school at Rivington, where they boarded, as a few do still, in the houses of the farmers. The creation of railways and the rise of the great proprietary schools has utterly abolished this state of things. Parents of the better class finding it very little easier and not so much cheaper to send their sons to Hawkshead or Cartmel, 15 or 20

Their decadence.

* A very similar case is that of Wolverley, near Kidderminster, in Worcestershire, where an income of 700*l.* a year is spent upon elementary schools.

miles off, than to Rossall or Windermere College, or Liverpool, or even to the South of England, naturally prefer a larger and more famous school. Thus deserted by strangers, the grammar school has also lost the poorer children of the immediate neighbourhood, who now receive an elementary education in the Government schools, and it has none to serve except the local tradespeople, who refuse or grumble at the presence of classics and mathematics in the school curriculum. In some parts of England these changes have proved fatal to the grammar schools, as in Shropshire, where Bridgnorth school contains only six or eight scholars, Drayton fourteen, Wem (in the upper department) seven, and Donnington (near Wroxeter) none at all. But in Lancashire the small grammar schools have accepted their changed position, and though they cling to Latin, give in most cases along with it a solid commercial education. It is too late to recover the splendours of the old time, if, indeed, those splendours are not due to the fond fancy of local patriotism; but it is still possible for them to do humbler yet substantial service to the immediate neighbourhood. Their difficulty is the small number of boys, willing to receive a superior education, whom that neighbourhood supplies. Hawkshead, for instance, is lonely as Tadmor in the wilderness: in the course of three visits to it I do not remember to have ever seen a human being, or, indeed, anything but a domestic fowl, in the streets. There are boys and girls within a mile or two numerous enough to fill a small elementary school, but not more than six or seven who care to learn classics and stay at school till 16. Cartmel and Widnes are in the same condition. Ormskirk and Prescot are more populous, but, lying near Liverpool, their grammar schools lose the boys who go thither by railway, and have hardly enough left to keep up an air of briskness and prosperity. The obvious resource would be to attract boys from the neighbouring country, especially the sons of the richer farmers. But the terms for board and education which a grammar-school master asks are often too high for the Lancashire farmer, who, as has been said, is seldom well off, while, being himself an uneducated man, he has a prejudice against the supposed classical character of the town grammar school. As a schoolmaster once observed to me, the mere name of grammar school repels many parents, while that of commercial academy attracts them. Moreover, what is called the social difficulty presses heavily on these minor schools. As some of the children of the minor tradespeople, publicans, and so forth, resort to them, the richer people often stand aloof, the school master is disheartened, and the school languishes. There is, therefore, a somewhat melancholy air about many of the seminor grammar schools, as of places that have seen better days—places that have lost their old vocation without as yet having found a new one. They are better than the cheap private schools occasionally to be found alongside of them, where the education is little more than elementary, and is bad of its kind. Yet they seem to do very little to raise the standard of intelligence in the country districts where they lie. Even the

Difficulties under which they labour.

Slight use of the town schools by the farming class.

Lancaster grammar school, whose excellence is well known, is attended by but few sons of farmers or people of the class of farmers living out of Lancaster itself. At the grammar schools of Ormskirk and Kirkham the proportion is somewhat higher, yet still low; and so at Widnes, Cartmel, Upholland, and other similar schools. Now and then I met with cases of farmers' sons walking in several miles to attend the grammar school; yet this is certainly the exception. The farmer who desires a superior education—which he very rarely does—is perhaps more likely to send his son to Liverpool or to a boarding school in the midland counties, and the grammar school relies for the most part on the sons of the tradespeople of the town.

Average education given in the small town grammar schools.

The latter seldom remain at school after 14 or 15. They are taught enough Latin to enable them to read Cæsar; a little French and mathematics; arithmetic, geography, English history, and occasionally, though rarely, drawing. In a private school, Latin would be omitted (to be in some cases, replaced by book-keeping), and the general tone of instruction would be somewhat lower. In the grammar schools there is no doubt a great interval between the goodness of schools like Lancaster and the badness of schools like Prescot, nevertheless, they are on the whole distinctly superior to their rivals and neighbours—the cheap private adventure schools,—handling the commercial subjects equally well or better, and giving besides enough intellectual training to make a permanent impression on the quicker and more industrious boys.

Average education received by the small farmers or labourers' sons.

The small tradesman's son in Ormskirk, Cartmel, Upholland, Hawkshead, Chorley, Kirkham, is, as respects education, by no means badly off; compared with the farmer's son, who is taught in a country school, whether endowed or National, he is indeed fortunate. The farmer's or labourer's child (for it matters little which we take) learns his letters at home, goes to school at nine, and plods away at reading and spelling for a year or two, usually under the charge (in a Privy Council school) of some pupil teacher, or (in an endowed school) of an incompetent assistant. At 11 his hand is just beginning to have some power over the pen, and his mind to have some faint comprehension of arithmetical processes. But at 11 he is also beginning to be of use in the fields. He is kept away all the time of hay harvest and corn harvest, and of the potato picking which follows. If he lives on moory ground, like that of the upper valleys of the Lune and Wyre, or along the flats south of the Ribble estuary, he is taken off to help in the turf-cutting; if near the coast, he is sent out to gather shrimps and cockles. Thus, attending school only some five or six months in the year, he is unable to make real progress in arithmetic, much less in geography and grammar; and when he is finally removed from school at 13, he has not grown familiar enough with the use of the pen to write his name in the marriage register ten years afterwards, nor fluent enough in reading to care if he ever opens a book again. A few boys, especially in the neighbourhood of manufacturing towns, do remain somewhat longer and learn, perhaps a little Latin, perhaps a little English grammar and geography,

which makes them something more like rational beings for the rest of their life. But the education I have described is that of the average boy in large parts of the country—in the hilly parts of Lonsdale, for example, in the country between Lancaster and Preston, and still more in that Bœotia of Lancashire, the sometimes moory and sometimes sandy plain that stretches along the coast from Preston to Liverpool.*

Causes of low state of education in the rural district.

This lamentable state of things is in great measure due to economical causes which no educational reforms can affect, to the poverty of the people, and the pressure of labour on the children's time. The labourer can hardly he blamed if he takes the child from school to work for the farmer who employs him and owns the cottage wherein he lives; the farmer himself, as has been said, is often little better off than a day labourer, and needs his children's help to scare the birds from the crops, and weed the garden, and fetch his dinner to the field. Nothing except a system of compulsory education will avail to meet and overcome these causes of ignorance. Something, however, may be done to improve the existing schools, by bringing a better education within the reach of country people, enabling the children to get more good out of the three or four years they spend in the school-room, and inducing a greater number of them to remain longer and study higher. Two means of doing this have been suggested.

Possible remedies.

(*a.*) Utilization of the town grammar schools by the creation or extension of boarding departments.

The first is to make the town grammar schools more generally accessible to the farmers, village shopkeepers, and others, who may possibly desire a better education than that of the National schools. These grammar schools are now too thinly scattered over the rural districts to effect much in this way. In the three hundreds of Lonsdale, Amounderness, and Leyland, with an area of 540,000 acres, and a population of 177,529,† there are but seven endowed schools ‡ giving systematically anything more than elementary instruction; that is to say, one school to every 25,361 souls, and to every 77,143 acres. It is evident that only a small part of this area lies within a three-mile radius from the seven schools enumerated. As a three-mile radius is practically the limit to the usefulness of a school for day boys, it is also plain that to make these schools available for persons who live beyond it, provision must be made for the reception of boarders at a cheaper rate. This may be done by encouraging boys to come and lodge in the town, attending school as day boys—a practice to which many schoolmasters object on moral grounds, but, so far as I could discover, without good reason.§ Or authorized boarding-houses may be established and put under the charge of one or more of the teachers, the scale of charges (for food and lodging) being fixed lower than it generally

* Bad as the condition of elementary education is here, it is far better than in most parts of Monmouthshire and Worcestershire.

† Excluding Preston town.

‡ Those of Lancaster, Kirkham, Chorley, Penwortham, Hawkshead, Cartmel, and Ulverston.

§ Some statements as to the results of the practice of letting boys live in lodgings and attend school as day scholars may be found in the report upon the Welsh Collegiate Institution at Llandovery.

stands at present, say at 25*l.* instead of at from 35*l.* to 50*l.** The difficulty here is that masters are not willing to undertake the trouble of boarders for so very slight a profit as can be made, unless with a great number of boys, off these low charges. If, therefore, it is really desirable and profitable to attract the farmers' sons to schools of a superior order, this may best be done, as it has been done in the south and east of England, by attaching to one or two of the best placed grammar schools boarding-houses on a great scale. If such a boarding-house were filled by 80 or 100 boys, it might provide lodging and food at a cost as low as that of the cheap private schools (20*l.* to 35*l.*); while, being under public management, it would escape the evils which in them are so frequent and so gross. The success of this expedient would, however, be at best doubtful. The Lancashire farmers have neither the wealth nor the belief in the value of education which has made their more substantial brethren in the midland and southern counties welcome the schools founded for their benefit. Nor would one or two such great schools produce a sensible effect in the more remote country districts. The children who will profit by a better education are as likely as not to be too poor to be ever sent from home to school. Therefore, without at all disparaging the plan just described, without denying the propriety of attempting to carry it out, it seems clear that it will not be alone sufficient, and that far more good may be done by improving the schools that exist, re-arranging them locally, and distributing to better purpose the money now spent upon them.

(*b.*) Reorganization and improvement of existing rural schools.

Nothing can be more chaotic than the present state of matters, nor anything more wasteful. In one parish there is a National school, supported by Government and by local subscriptions; it has to earn its grant, and consequently gives a tolerably sound, although very limited, education. In the next parish there is an endowed school, visited by no inspector, and neglected by its trustees; it gives a bad education, and nobody is the better for it except the landowners who have to contribute nothing to its support. In a third a National and an endowed school exist side by side, each diminishing the numbers and lowering the efficiency of the other. In a fourth parish, where squire or clergyman or both are non-resident or supine, there is, it may be, no school of any kind whatever.

Waste of money and power under existing arrangements.

Instances: Leyland.

A case may serve to illustrate the practical result of this state of things. Leyland is a parish in the centre of the county, a few miles south of Preston. It contains a so-called grammar school, which has for a long time been virtually an elementary school, although at the time of my visit there was one boy who could decline *dominus*, with only three or four mistakes. The income is 27*l.* a year. The building is abominably small and close, and there is no playground, except the churchyard, on whose edge the school stands. About 35 children are usually in attendance, taught by one master only. Not far off stands a Government school, filled mostly by young children, yet with some boys and

* The terms at Lancaster are 45*l.*–50*l.* at Preston, 47*l.*–53*l.*; at Clitheroe, 46*l.*–68*l.*; at Hawkshead, 37*l.*–42*l.*; at Cartmel, 35*l.*–45*l.*; at Kirkham, 32*l.*; at Ormskirk, 38*l.*–42*l.*; at Chorley, 35*l.*–38*l.*; counting in (in each case) washing, but no other extra.

girls who might as well be at the grammar school. Within half a mile of both these schools is a third, called the Golden Hill school (endowed non-classical). It has an income of about 235*l.* a year, and gives elementary instruction to something like 90 boys and 30 girls.* A public spirited trustee of the grammar school was struck by the absurdity of such a state of things, and proposed to fuse the schools; but the Golden Hill trustees, hearing of his schemes, would have nothing to do with them, and refused, as I was told, to admit him on their trust. Thus the three schools continue to exist side by side, all giving the same elementary instruction (not good of its kind), and none attempting to provide some higher teaching for the better families of the parish who would appreciate and profit by it.

Blackrod.

I have already had occasion, in speaking of exhibitions, to mention the Blackrod grammar school. It stands in a mining village, seven or eight miles west-north-west of Bolton, and although it enjoys a revenue of 242*l.* per annum, educates, and educates very badly, only some 30 or 40 children. The subjects of instruction are elementary, exactly as in the National school a few yards off; and the children of the village would probably be all taught in the latter were it not for a clothing charity attached to the grammar school, which brings to the latter 15 or 20 of them yearly. There is, in fact, no *raison d'être* for the grammar school, except this clothing charity, which, in the master's opinion, did nothing but harm to the people. Two miles from Blackrod, upon a hill on the other side of the Lancashire and Yorkshire railway which runs along the valley, is the grammar school of Rivington, with an income of 333*l.* per annum, which is spent in giving an elementary education, little better than that of Government schools, to about 100 children, and a classical and mathematical education to some 12 or 15 more. This is no great result for the money spent; still Rivington does some good to the neighbourhood, and at one time did a great deal of good. Blackrod school does absolutely none. Even if resuscitated, there would hardly be room for it as a superior school in a poor neighbourhood, and with Rivington so near; it would be better, therefore, either to fuse it and Rivington into one, or to unite it with the local National school so as to improve the latter.†

Number and revenues of the endowed country schools.

It would be easy to multiply instances of this kind; but it can hardly be thought necessary to do so, for similar phenomena may be found all over England. The total number of the endowed schools described as classical in the three hundreds of Lancashire which I take to represent the rural district, Lonsdale, Amounderness, and Leyland, (excluding the seven town grammar schools)

* I state this on report, for the school, being non-classical, did not fall within the scope of the inquiry you desired me to conduct.

† If it were united with Rivington, the joint revenues would make it possible to build a boarding-house, and procure a staff of teachers sufficient to try the experiment of giving good and cheap board, lodging, and instruction to the sons of farmers, country shopkeepers, mine managers, and so forth; as well as to the children of persons in the neighbouring manufacturing district who might prefer a boarding to a day school. To their case it will be necessary to revert.

is 34;* their revenues are 2,751*l.* per annum. The number of the other endowed schools, non-classical, in the same three hundreds is 45; their revenues, in round numbers, are 2,700*l.*† (This sum, 5,450*l.*, the total revenue of schools in the three hundreds, is now applied in maintaining a number of petty schools which sometimes replace—generally inadequately—and sometimes compete with the Government schools. It is often badly applied in the case of the (nominally) classical endowed schools,‡ and still more often in the case of the non-classical, most of which, if I may judge from what I saw and heard respecting some of them, are ill conducted and almost useless. Now the number of parishes in these three hundreds is 42. Excluding from this those seven which already possess a grammar school (that is to say, a school which really gives something more than an elementary education,) Preston, Lancaster, Hawkshead, Cartmel, Ulverston, Kirkham, and Chorley,§ we have 35 left. Dividing the above-mentioned sum of money (5,450*l.*), by the number of the parishes, we get 155*l.* for each parish. I find by a comparison of a considerable number of cases, that the average annual grant made by the Privy Council to rural National schools in North Lancashire is about 50*l.* A redistribution of charity funds would therefore give an income three times as great to each of such schools as it now obtains from the State, and greater than that which it obtains from all sources, grants, subscriptions, and school pence put together.‖ With this increased income it would be possible to give an entirely new character to the school so aided, and make it virtually a place of superior as well as of elementary education. A master might be procured competent to teach, and that in a perfectly intelligent way, mathematics, English grammar, geography, mensuration, and book-keeping, as well as Latin, if it should be needed; and a grown-up assistant at a salary of 30*l.* might be added to the one or two existing pupil teachers. This staff would be sufficient not only to give to the children who leave school at 11 or 12 a more thorough instruction in reading writing and arithmetic than they now receive, but to conduct a superior department for those boys and girls whose parents will permit them to remain a year or two longer, and from whom fees amounting to 8*s.* or 10*s.* a quarter might fairly be expected.

Possibility of employing these revenues to better purpose.

Probable advantages of such a plan.

It would take too long to show in detail how such a plan might be worked out, and what advantages it might be expected to

* Nine or ten of these 34 have been turned into National schools.

† It is impossible, owing to the neglect of some schools to send their accounts to the Charity Commission, to make this total absolutely accurate; although I have no doubt that it is substantially so.

‡ Out of 20 not turned into National schools (it being impossible from various reasons to pronounce any judgment on the remaining four or five), not more than three could be pronounced efficient and satisfactory.

§ I include Penwortham parish, although it has a sort of grammar school, because it is purely rural, whereas the other seven grammar schools are all situated in towns of greater or less size.

‖ The sum spent by Government is, of course, a good deal larger than this 50*l.*; firstly, because grants for building, improvement, &c., are frequently made in addition to the regular annual grant; and secondly, because many of the larger parishes have more than one Government school. Against these, however, we must set the parishes where there is no Government school, but which would enjoy their share of the revenue from consolidated charities.

possess. I must be content with specifying briefly several of the more important.

Avoidance of the wastefulness of the present system.

1. It would be infinitely more economical than the present plan of maintaining alongside one another several schools, with different buildings and different sets of teachers, each too small to be efficient. In no country place are there children sufficient to keep employed the staff of a grammar school which is merely a grammar school, and refuses to give elementary instruction to those who leave at or before 12 years of age.

Improvement in the teaching of the elementary as well as higher subjects.

2. No one who has visited many schools can fail to have been struck by the surprising difference which the presence of a superior person as head master makes to the tone of the school and the intelligence of the whole body of scholars. The great and admitted defect of our Privy Council schools, as at present constituted, is the mechanical nature of the teaching, and the consequently mechanical and wooden character of the work done by the children, even by those who pass without much difficulty in the prescribed standards. To meet this evil, which affects the whole mass of children, is at least as important as to provide superior instruction for a few.

Opportunities of cultivation and advancement to poor boys of talent.

3. Such a plan offers the best chance of eliciting and advancing humble merit. The really best boy may be the son of a labourer or small farmer, who could never be sent to a central school, if one existed. In the local school he may rise rapidly from the elementary to the higher department, having the higher fee, if necessary, remitted to him.

Tendency to feed the central schools.

4. It is likely—more likely than any system of exhibitions from the under schools, to feed the superior grammar schools, whether in towns or in suitable central spots through the country; for the great difficulty in the way of such exhibitions is the low state of the primary schools, the small number and limited capacity of whose masters makes it impossible for them to bring boys up to the level at which they will begin to profit by the teaching of the better grammar schools. If a higher class of primary schools were in a position to give such a training (including the elements of Latin and an intelligent mastery of arithmetic and English grammar) as would enable their boys at the age of 12 or 13 to enter on an equal footing the classes of the town grammar school, a far greater number of parents would be found willing to let their children proceed thither, and a certain number who, as things stand now, send the child to a boarding school at 10, would allow it to remain at the local school till 12 or 13, thereby improving the tone and social position of the latter.

Necessity of a provision for girls not less than for boys.

5. It provides for girls as well as for boys. The state of girls' education in the country districts is, as will be shown more fully in the sequel, deplorably bad. There is now no provision whatever for them, except that which the elementary schools supply; hence many of the richer farmers send their daughters to miserable private day or boarding schools in the smaller towns, where they learn less and learn it worse than they would have done in the Government school. That it is not merely safe and convenient to have boys and girls taught together, in the same classes, from infancy

up to the age of 14 or 15, but positively beneficial to both, giving gentleness to the one sex and manliness to the other, establishing a simple and natural intercourse between them which is morally far better than isolation, seems to be abundantly proved, not only by the testimony of all, or almost all, the teachers who have tried it, but by the actual and acknowledged success of many schools in which it prevails. To many of these endowments girls have as good a claim as boys, nor is their education a whit less important to the well-being of the community. But to establish a whole set of superior schools for them would be a wasteful and expensive process. In Lancashire there is not even that prejudice against the education together of boys and girls which might be an obstacle to this plan in some districts, for all through the north of England, as well as in Scotland, it has been the practice for girls to use the grammar schools.*

Importance of bringing civilizing influences to bear directly on the rural population.

6. By establishing central schools we give an opportunity of improvement to persons who will leave their country homes in search of it. By raising the standard of the parish schools we attempt to civilize the country itself, and do something to raise the agricultural labourer out of his abject state.

Educational charities often prevented as well as wasted; importance of giving them to the *poor*.

7. Such an application of the funds of the non-classical endowed schools (including, of course, the "blue" schools) would not only be a utilization of funds now in many cases utterly wasted, but would be a veritable application of them for the benefit of the poor. All who have observed the working of educational charities agree that the poor are not benefited by free education,† and still less by the provision of food and clothing for their children. But no so truly precious gift can be made to them as that of an education superior to what they are unable or too ignorant to purchase for themselves, and which may give their children the chance of rising in the world, and make them at any rate more intelligent and active members of society.

Additional expense which the scheme would involve.

The objection to this scheme (apart from questions of the means of working it, into which it is needless to digress) is that it would involve an increased expenditure of public money. In some few parishes the endowed school stands in the place of the National, and saves the country the expense of a grant; in others the endowed school is also national, and the grant made on attendance and on the results of inspection is diminished according to the amount of the endowment.‡ It must, however, be remarked that the saving to the nation—after all not very great—is by no means so great as the saving to the local landowner, who considers that

* In several towns, Burnley, for example, Rochdale and Colne, I was told of ladies occupying a good position in the society of the place who had been taught in the grammar school; and I met in different parts of the country with ladies who said they had themselves been so educated, and that they had never seen anything but good come of it.

† That is to say a free education in elementary schools. In schools of a higher grade, whose fees are high, it is well that there should be reserved places on the foundation accessible to the poor. But Lancashire labourers can usually pay from 3*d*. to 6*d*. a week, and if they can it is much better for all parties that they should.

‡ At present the rule is that the grant and endowment together shall not exceed 15*s*. per child. Thus a poorly-endowed school may draw a good deal from Government, a well-endowed one nothing. Hence the well-endowed schools are rarely inspected, and usually suffer for it.

the presence of an endowment relieves him from the necessity of subscribing to the school, and that upon principles of strict justice there is no reason why a parish which contributes equally with its neighbours to the revenue of the country, should be excluded from a share in the grant for education made out of that revenue, merely because it happens to have an endowment which is perhaps more an injury than a blessing. The rule introduced by the Revised Code, reducing the grant in proportion to the endowment, may have been a proper and necessary one; but it need not be regarded as more than a temporary resource against the transient abuses which are incident to a growing and still undeveloped system. At present, as has already been said, the result of the coexistence of two systems of different origin and managed without relation to one another—the foundation schools and the Privy Council schools—is that the poor of a parish possessing an endowment are probably worse off than their neighbours, while the landowners are certainly better off.

Need of branch schools: relation of chief parish school to them.

Into the difficulties of detail which might be looked for in attempting to introduce and carry on a scheme of this sort, it is not necessary to enter; they are obvious, but there seems no reason to believe them insuperable. It must, of course, be admitted that the establishment of one well paid and highly taught school in each parish, would not be enough to meet the educational wants of the people. Parishes are very large in Lancashire—the average area of a parish in the before-mentioned three hundreds (Lonsdale, Amounderness, and Leyland) is something over 12,800 acres (20 square miles); and inasmuch as they are irregular in form, and as it would frequently be inconvenient to plant the chief school in the centre of the parish, it would be necessary in most cases to supplement the central school by branch schools, which might serve the population living beyond a three-mile radius.* This, however, is a step which must in any case be taken before long, for there are now poor parishes or parts of parishes where, for want of schools, children grow up in blank ignorance; and it is one which the plan suggested will facilitate and work in with. One good central school in each parish, while it would make sufficient provision for the higher instruction, would also exert a powerful influence in raising the tone of the others, by presenting to their teachers an example for imitation, as well as by civilizing the people, and gradually leading them to set more value on education. In this way the benefits of each central school would not be confined to its immediate neighbourhood; they would in time permeate the whole district, and more than compensate for the additional expense which it might be necessary to incur.

Cases in which experiment of a superior parish school has been tried.

That the attempt to raise the income and general character of the parish schools would be attended by the advantages indicated above, though it may be thought possible *à priori*, is made far more probable by the proved success of a number of schools in which it has been tried. I may refer, for example, to the cases

* It need scarcely be remarked that very often there are villages at the opposite ends of a parish, in one of which the chief school must be planted, and that a three-mile radius must be measured not as the crow flies, but along the roads or paths.

of the Callington school in Cornwall, and the Aldersey school at Bunbury in Cheshire, cases described in evidence which has been laid before you. No school in Lancashire can be appealed to as exactly in point, for those which have been turned into national schools seem to have wholly lost their character as places of superior instruction. Several, however, have continued to combine the higher teaching for older children with elementary teaching for the younger: and in these schools I found, along with some faults arising from defective organization, a marked superiority in the general tone of the teaching, showing itself even more distinctly in the quickened intelligence of the children, than in the actual knowledge which their papers and answers evidenced. The case of Abbeystead (already described) is not wholly dissimilar. There, the occasional teaching of the higher subjects, and the capacity of the master to teach them, had, so to speak, leavened the whole school and raised its tone. The most striking instance, however, is furnished by the circumstances of the parish schools in the counties of Aberdeen, Moray, and Banff, which enjoy a share in the Dick Bequest.*

The Dick Bequest Schools.

In these three counties there are 154 parochial schools, 20 of which do not participate, the regulations made by the trustees having in their case not been complied with. These regulations—as well as the working of the bequest generally—are set forth in the able and interesting report presented to the trustees by their Visitor two years ago. The most important points are these. Every schoolmaster intending to apply, must first pass an examination in Latin, Greek, English grammar and literature, history, (ancient and modern) geography, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, and the elements of physics. He must also report annually to the Bequest Visitor the number of children in attendance, the number learning each branch, and the amount of his school income (*i.e.* from the heritors and from school-fees). Each school is inspected every second year by the Visitor, and the grant is awarded according to the merit of the teacher, as evidenced by his examination, and the merit of the school, as evidenced by the attendance of the scholars, and their performances on the day of inspection. The total income of the fund was, in 1864, 4,344*l.* odd; which, divided by 134 (the number of schools now participating) gives an average grant of 32*l.* 8*s.* 4*d.* The results described seem incredible to one whose experience has lain only among the rural schools of England. The elementary subjects are excellently taught, better than in the best Privy Council schools, while the higher classes receive a thorough classical and mathematical preparation for the University. A great number of men who have distinguished themselves as well in after life as at the Universities of their own country and at

* My attention was first called to these schools by an eminent man residing in Lancashire, who had himself received his education there, and was struck by the great inferiority even of the town schools of Lancashire to these parish schools. Full information respecting them may be obtained from the very elaborate report presented once every ten years to the trustees of the fund, and by them published; and a clear and succinct account of them is also to be found in the report of the Assistant Commissioners appointed to investigate the state of education in the country districts of Scotland.

The average income from all sources (exclusive of Government grants) of a parochial schoolmaster in these three counties was in 1863, 122*l.* 6*s.* 3*d.*

Cambridge, have proceeded from these schools—men whose scanty means would not have suffered them to seek the earlier part of their education away from home.

Such results are indeed not wholly due to this Bequest, but also to the organization of the Scotch parochial schools, to the provision of a very cheap education, with numerous helps in the way of bursaries, at the university of Aberdeen, to the superior value which the rural population in those regions have learnt to set upon education, and to the opportunities which parish schoolmasters have of becoming clergymen. It is not to be expected that a corresponding expenditure of money would at once produce corresponding results in Lancashire. Nevertheless the history of the Dick Bequest is enough to show that infinitely more can be accomplished in country places by good organization, regular inspection, and above all, by high salaries to the teachers, than is attained at present in any part of England.

Favourable conditions for trying this experiment in Lancashire.

These examples, as well as the general considerations already mentioned, seem to show that a remedy for the low state of education, as well elementary as superior, in the country districts of Lancashire, is to be sought, not in the creation of a few high-class boarding schools, but in the progressive elevation of a certain number of elementary schools, one, if it be possible, in every parish. It is a remedy which can be applied more easily there than in most other parts of England, since there is but little social distinction between the farmers and village shopkeepers on the one hand, and the day labourers on the other; and since it has been the practice here, as in other parts of the north of England and Scotland, for boys and girls to be educated together up till the age of 14 or 15. The success of the plan would no doubt depend upon the possibility of finding suitable men to work it; men whose minds do not act mechanically, and who have received a better general education than has fallen to the lot of most of the trained masters, yet alive to the practical necessity of devoting themselves chiefly to a thorough teaching of the elementary branches. Such men are, in proportion to the population of the country, far more numerous in Aberdeenshire than in Lancashire.* Nevertheless, with the offer of 120*l.* or 150*l.* per annum to tempt them, there is reason to think that in course of time a sufficient supply might be found, if there existed any provision, similar to that made by the University of Aberdeen, for educating them cheaply and well.

Difficulty of finding competent teachers.

Such a plan as this, if adopted, need not supersede but may even fall in with any other of the expedients that have been suggested for benefiting the farming class; such expedients, for instance, as the foundation of cheap public boarding schools, the establishment of exhibitions from lesser to higher schools, and so forth. But it seems important to remember that these are after all palliatives and not cures; and that whatever tends to separate the interests of the farmer from those of the labourer tends to put the labourer in a

* It need hardly be said that the denominationalism which pervades our educational system seriously limits the area of choice for teachers, since a great part of what is called the middle class are in Lancashire Nonconformists.

worse position. There is perhaps a danger that the natural despondency which overwhelms anyone who contemplates the wretchedness and ignorance and apathy of the rural population of this country may induce men, zealous men, to acquiesce too readily in its continuance, may make them think that it is enough if a few more children can be made to read and write, to add and multiply, even though no spark of intellectual life be lighted in their embruted souls. And it would seem therefore that the ideal to be striven after in all projects for the bettering of rural education is not the provision of a few higher schools for a few of the richer people, but the elevation of the elementary school, and with it and through it, of the agricultural labourer.

II.—Manchester.

Manchester, which in the minds of most Englishmen is associated only with cotton factories and tall chimney stalks pouring forth volumes of smoke, has within the last twenty or thirty years undergone a great change. It is now not so much a manufacturing town as the metropolis of a vast manufacturing district. Few mills are now erected, except here and there in the outskirts, for land and labour have risen in price, and it answers better to spin cotton and weave it, or to set up foundries and print works, in the lesser towns that lie to the north and east. Thus the atmosphere of the city has grown sensibly clearer with the diminution of smoke; and instead of unsightly factories the streets are lined with stately warehouses, to which the manufactured article, unbleached or bleached or in the form of printed calicoes, is brought from all the neighbouring country, and where it is sold to agents from America and the Continent, as well as to the crowd of minor shopkeepers who come from every part of the United Kingdom to purchase the goods which they retail.

This change in the nature of business has been followed by a corresponding change in the social character and habits of the place. Society has settled down and consolidated itself; manners have grown more refined, and the distinction of classes has become more marked. Thirty years ago the population was composed of operatives and their employers the millowners, who had themselves but just risen from the ranks. Now there is a large and tolerably well-defined class of wealthy merchants, commission agents, cotton spinners, and calico printers, and below them a vast body of persons employed by them as warehousemen and clerks at salaries ranging from 60*l.* up to 400*l.* or 500*l.*, in some few cases up to 1,000*l.* per annum. Besides the warehousemen, who are in Lancashire at least quite peculiar to Manchester, there is the usual proportion of professional men and of shopkeepers, great and small, after which we reach the common substratum of persons engaged in manual labour, forming of course the bulk of the inhabitants. The children of these latter being taught, when they are taught at all, in the National and British schools, need not for the present concern us further.

On proceeding to inquire into the education of persons above the rank of labourers—the merchants, manufacturers, warehousemen,

and shopkeepers—the first difficulty I encountered was to discover how and where they got their education. The population of Manchester and Salford in 1861 was 460,428, and allowing for the probable increase since that year, it would in 1866 be about 500,000. Of this population, the children above the rank of the working-class, between the ages of 8 and 16, would number something like 5,000.* But the total number of children for whom I could account by the existing schools used by persons belonging to the middle and upper class, does not exceed 2,600. Allowing something for boys who may be educated at home, or in schools which I did not discover, say 400 or thereabouts,† we should still be unable to account for 2,000.‡ The explanation of the difficulty turned out, however, to be easy, and although it is not susceptible of direct statistical proof, it was confirmed by so much indirect evidence, and by the testimony of so many persons with different means of knowing, that it became impossible to feel any doubt of its truth. The schools for the middle class are few, because their province is encroached upon both on its upper and its lower limit. On the one hand, the richest people, and a great many who are not rich, send their sons from home to boarding schools—some of them to Harrow or Rugby, Cheltenham or Clifton, and the rest to private boarding schools in Yorkshire, or in the neighbourhood of London. Several well-informed people said that in estimating the number of boys so withdrawn from Manchester schools at 1,000, I was likely to be not very much over the mark.§ The poorer shopkeepers, on the other hand, as well as the warehousemen and clerks, take advantage of the very cheap education which is offered to them in the National and British schools, and which, narrow as is its range under the rules of the Revised Code, is deemed by them sufficient for boys who are to begin life at 13. Leaving out of view for the moment those boys who might be looked for in the schools to which your attention is directed, but who are not now in them, and having regard solely to the education given in the non-elementary schools of Manchester itself, there are three questions to be asked respecting it.

Firstly. What sort of an education do Manchester parents, business men, desire for their sons?

Secondly. Where do they receive that education?

Thirdly. What is the range and quality of that education as now actually given?

(1.) Kind of education which Manchester parents desire.

First. The great majority of persons in Manchester above the rank of labourers are engaged in business, and it is for business that the great majority of their sons are destined. Now it need not be said

* Taking the proportion of children between these ages of the middle and upper class at 10 to every 1,000 of the total population.

† I did discover some schools not mentioned in the Post Office Directory, but not a sufficient number to make me think that it is seriously defective. The allowance made in the text is probably a liberal one.

‡ It is scarcely necessary to make a further allowance for the boys under sixteen who may be engaged in some trade or business, for their number is probably compensated for by that of the boys under eight who are at school, and so have been reckoned in among the 3,000.

§ All such estimates are of course purely conjectural, and this one seems to me excessive. Perhaps 500 is near the truth.

that the Manchester man has none of that stolid indifference to 'school learning' which distinguishes the British farmer. He desires his son to get an education, and is willing to pay a fair price for it. But his notion of what education should be is far more negative than positive, and is in all respects vague. The boy is to go into a warehouse at 14 or 15; and the father's views are necessarily governed by the thought of what it is he will have to do there. Hence he objects to Greek and Latin as useless, or at best tolerates them as established by custom, but destitute of intrinsic value. He has less direct hostility to mathematics, but quite as little inclination to favour them. Sometimes he talks of French or German. More rarely, and only when he desires it for professional purposes, he mentions natural science—chemistry, or physics—and mechanical drawing. But his feeling, when it attains to a conscious expression, is in nine cases out of ten simply this, "I want my boy to write a "good clear hand, and to add up figures quickly. I want him to "spell correctly, and to know enough about history, geography, "and all that sort of thing, not to seem ignorant in society. As "for other matters, I suppose he must learn what the school "teaches while he stays there, but it is by his own shrewdness and "activity that I expect him to get on; and none of these orna-"mental things that he learns will make any difference to that. "Too much schooling oftener mars a man of business than it "makes him." This is in substance to say that the practical value of education is confined to writing, reckoning, and so much skill in composition as a business letter requires. Manchester people are too shrewd not to recognize the value of thorough literary or scientific training when carried on up to the age of 18 or 20. But in Manchester, as in Liverpool and I suppose in all commercial towns, it is an axiom that not only is a boy as fit for business at 15 as he will ever be, but that he will not take kindly to an office if he goes to it a year or two older.

Places in which instruction is given.

Secondly. The next question is, in what local institutions is the desired education given? These institutions (excluding of course the Privy Council schools) fall under three heads.

1. The Owens College, giving a collegiate or quasi-university course, *i.e.*, a general education in the higher branches of literature, history, and science.

2. The Grammar School, giving a mainly classical, and to some extent also mathematical, education, preparatory to the Universities.

3. The private adventure (and other quasi-private)* schools, giving either a classical and commercial, or, more frequently, a wholly commercial education.

Of these three, it is the last that are of the greatest practical importance to the present inquiry, since it is they which give its general character to the education of the city. Among them there

* By quasi-private schools I mean those which, though not absolutely the property of the teacher, are managed by him for his sole benefit. Such are for the most part the schools held in buildings belonging to congregations. Such, too, is a large school called the "Manchester Commercial School," established by the Manchester Church Education Society.

is of course great diversity in cost, in pretensions, in size, in substantial excellence. Still there is a sufficient similarity to make it possible to characterize in general terms the instruction which they give. It is of this, then, the commercial education, that it will be necessary in the first place to speak, reserving for subsequent description the classical teaching of the Grammar school and the collegiate course of Owens College. The private adventure schools.

Thirdly. What is the range and what the quality of the education given?

It must be remembered that the education of a Manchester boy is usually a short one, not extending beyond 14 or 15. In the private schools which have made returns to the questions of the Commission, only 12 per cent. of the scholars were over 14 years of age; and less than 2 per cent. over 16. It is also, considered as a systematic training, of a somewhat loose and fluctuating character. The parent, having in most cases no special reason to prefer one private school to another, since he has no means of ascertaining the real merits of any, is apt to take fancies and make frequent changes. Boys are removed from school to school, losing more, it may be, by the change of books and system, than they gain by passing even from a worse school to a better. According to the report of teachers themselves, the average duration of a boy's stay at one school does not exceed three years. These are disturbing influences, but the aim and general character of the teaching in all these schools is substantially the same. They profess it their chief object to give "a thorough commercial education." If ever a phrase can do mischief by intensifying an error which lurked vaguely in the mind till words gave it a definite shape and confidence in itself, the phrase 'commercial education' may be thought to have done it. Length of education in Manchester. The phrase 'commercial education:' its two meanings.

There are two different senses in which it may be taken. It may mean the education best suited for a man who is to live by commerce, that is to say, one whose schooling (according to Manchester custom) ends at 15 or 16; the education which shall leave him at that age in the completest state of preparation for active mercantile life, with his faculties trained, his tastes cultivated, his moral and social feelings strengthened and wisely directed to the right objects. Or it may mean the education which is most likely to give him an immediate success in trade, *i.e.*, which will enable him to get money most quickly. In either sense the phrase has a rational meaning; it is from the confusion of the two that so much mischief has arisen. Parents who, if the question were put to them, would prefer to choose the former, practically follow the latter. The schoolmaster, whose zeal and sense of duty would lead him to strive to carry out the wider and more liberal view, finds his interest driving him into the more narrow and selfish one. In practice he makes a sort of compromise between the two. The subjects which tradition has established as part of a liberal education are not wholly discarded, but being supposed to be of little practical use, they are taught in a languid, careless way. Both boy and teacher are aware that the parent neither knows nor cares what

progress is made in them; and the strength of the teaching is expended on the commercial subjects, with what result it may be proper to state. I will first take the case of a merchant or well-to-do shopkeeper, with an income of from 700*l.* a year up to 1,500*l.* The son of such an one, if he is not sent to a distant boarding school, has most probably the following career:—When he has learnt his letters he goes for a year or two to some small preparatory school, kept by a lady, where he learns to read correctly, to spell a little, to say the multiplication table, and to know that English grammar has four parts, orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody. At nine his father takes him to a boys' school in the neighbourhood; the head master receives him, and places him in one of the smaller rooms, if it be a big school, and in one of the corners of the room, if it be a small one, under the charge of an assistant. The assistant is possibly ignorant, and probably a dull and unskilful teacher. He has little interest in the progress of his pupils, being a hireling, and knowing that if their performances redound to anyone's credit, it will not be to his. Moreover, as he takes them (usually, though not quite invariably) in all branches of instruction, any special gift that he may have for teaching one branch goes for little. At first the boy is taught reading, spelling, writing, English grammar, arithmetic; then geography is added, then history; in the course of another year French, and possibly Latin; by the time he is 13, Euclid, algebra, and it may even be some little German and drawing. These subjects, to the number of a dozen or more, are worked in by means of an elaborate time table, according to which five hours a week are spent on one subject, let us say arithmetic; four on another—writing; three on others—French, geography, mathematics; two on others—Latin, history, dictation; one on English composition, German, and drawing, or on some branch of natural science. If the boy stays long enough at the school he passes in time, perhaps when he is 13 or 14, from assistants up to the head master, and then his horizon grows brighter. The head masters of some six or seven of these schools are able and painstaking men, and under them the boy, now in some measure delivered from the thraldom of his time table, and allowed to concentrate his attention on a few subjects, may make good progress in mathematics or Latin. But not one-eighth part of the whole number remain to this stage, and even those who do have in the previous weary years under the handling of the assistants suffered evils and contracted habits which it is now too late to cure.*

Actual nature and contents of the commercial education.

(*a*) In its higher form.

The desire for knowledge, which is surely when properly fostered a strong passion in the minds of most children, even those whose volatility makes them troublesome to deal with, has been checked by the listless monotony of the teaching, and has found no extraneous stimulus to take its place. The classes are too small to rouse

* I need hardly say that I do not speak of every school, since, as has been said already (p. 551), some two or three of the Manchester private schools which I visited were conducted by really able and philosophical teachers and seemed to deserve high commendation in many points. Even in them, however, faults similar in kind as those mentioned above might be discerned, faults which were no doubt due not to the men, but to their position.

emulation, or that other and better feeling which is sometimes confounded with emulation, the sympathy of numbers. At home there has been little to rouse or encourage the boy's diligence. The father is away at business all day, and sees him only for an hour or two in the evening. He may sometimes glance through the lately finished copybook, or perhaps give him a sum to do, or ask where Pernambuco is. "What, you don't know this, and I pay three guineas every quarter to Mr. Smith for teaching you it." In his other studies he shows no interest; it is well if he does not openly sneer at his Latin and Euclid, and threaten to forbid him to work any longer at them, a threat which it may be supposed is seldom heard with alarm.

Then at 15 the father declares he will wait no longer. A place has been found in a warehouse, and the merchant doubts whether the boy is not already too old to rough it as a boy ought, to run errands, carry letters to the post, and make himself generally useful at the beck of others. The father is not a rich man, and began life himself even younger. Education is all very well, but his sons must learn to look out for themselves. Thus the boy goes and leaves most of what he learnt behind him. He is a pretty good arithmetician, so long as he knows which of his rules to apply to a sum, and is not required to think about its meaning. He spells sufficiently well, and writes neatly, seldom quickly; he knows some English history and geography, and can translate an ordinary French book with tolerable ease, although he cannot write a letter in French, much less speak it.* His Latin has probably done him good, but it has not gone far enough to enable him to translate at sight an easy piece of Cicero. Mathematics have taken no hold on his mind at all. He is in most cases, although not in all, ignorant of natural history and natural science.

This is the result in the more expensive schools, where a boy remains, on the average, until he is 15. But these schools educate perhaps only one-fifth or so of the middle-class population of Manchester, and the education of the other four-fifths is therefore much more limited. If the warehouseman with a salary of 200*l.* per annum sends his son to a National or British school, he probably learns nothing but reading, writing, arithmetic, and some little English grammar and geography. If he goes to one of the cheap private schools that abound in the less genteel suburbs, schools charging from 3*l.* to 6*l.* annually, the instruction he receives is nominally wider in its compass, but really not more thorough in its substance. There he learns no Latin, no mathematics, little or no French, no natural science, no English composition, no drawing. He is not to so great an extent taught by assistants, but he is taught by a head master who has seldom any competence for his work, either in point of knowledge or of talent. Coming from such a school at the age of 13 or 14, the boy will have done well if he can write a letter of three pages with only six blunders

(*b*) In its lower form.

* In one of the best private schools which I visited I found that the highest class had been at French for three years; and had for the sake of it almost entirely neglected mathematics and Latin. Yet, when I proposed that they should give some small specimen of their powers of composing in French, the headmaster said it would be quite useless for them to try to do so.

spelling, if his arithmetic goes as far as fractions and compound proportion, if he can repeat the capitals of European countries and English counties, if he knows the difference between a common and a proper noun, between Magna Charta and the Habeas Corpus Act.

Defect greater in point of mental discipline than in point of knowledge.

It is not, however, in respect of what he knows, or does not know, that the chief defect lies, it is rather in the condition of his mind. He has been taught a certain number of facts and rules, not the relations of the facts nor the meaning of the rules. Little or nothing has been done to give him the power of applying principles, of grasping distinctions, of fixing his attention upon any one subject. His judgment has not been strengthened, nor has the habit been formed in him of seeking for a reason in the facts he observes. His attention has never been called to the natural laws under which he must live in the world. What is perhaps worse, he has not been made to like any subject. His interests, if he have any, are dormant: he is sent out into life at an age when education must necessarily be incomplete, without any desire to preserve and extend his knowledge. To give this training and implant these tastes is hard enough, and no one who knows boys will be surprised by frequent disappointments. But an education which never makes the attempt stands self-condemned. The cheap schools, with very rare exceptions, do not make the attempt. The more expensive ones sometimes do, but their teaching staff is not strong enough, and the support of parents not assured enough, to make the attempt vigorous or the results often successful.

The Grammar school.

Unlike in many respects to the private schools, and needing special mention because it represents a different type of education, is the Grammar school. It enjoys a traditional respect as the school of the town, dating from times before the Reformation, and connected with that ancient collegiate foundation out of which the modern cathedral chapter has been created. Being a free school, it is used by all classes of the people. Some come to it from the Government schools for the sake of cheapness; many of the wealthier people, on the other hand, and especially the professional men of the city, value the excellent classical teaching which it supplies, and are attracted by the exhibitions to the universities which are open to its scholars. These exhibitions, as well as the nature of its foundation, have made its system at all times mainly classical; boys therefore who leave it, as many do, at 15 or 16, have had a much more thorough linguistic training, and a less practically commercial one, than the better private schools would have given them. Hence there is a notion in Manchester that while the Grammar school is the right place for a boy going to the universities, a boy intended for business had better be sent to one of the private schools. This notion seemed to me so far well founded that I could not doubt but what the Grammar school teaching might be much improved, especially in the lower forms, by increasing the staff of masters, and offering somewhat higher salaries. To accomplish this, fees must be imposed, as the endowment is diminishing. The feoffees have therefore applied to Chancery for a new scheme, pending whose settlement it is needless to discuss the matter further. I will only add that the Grammar school

holds, and ought to continue to hold, a most important place in the educational system of the town, as the chief organ of classical and mathematical training, and as the only school in all the manufacturing towns which maintains a constant connexion with the universities. Under a well-framed constitution, which should enable it to be an efficient commercial as well as classical school, there is hardly any limit which could be fixed to its possible increase and prosperity.

The Owens College.

The third institution is one which, although not falling directly within the province of the Commission, plays too important a part in the educational machinery, not of Manchester merely, but of all Lancashire, for an account of it to be omitted here. This is the Owens College, founded in A.D. 1845 by Mr. John Owens of Manchester, and opened in 1851. The number of its students has gone on steadily though slowly increasing (from 62 day students in 1851–52, to 128 in 1864–65; from 28 evening students in 1852–53, to 313 in 1864–65), and has been fortunate in obtaining the services of many eminent men as professors. It is affiliated to the University of London, through whose examinations its students may obtain degrees, and is in other respects organized somewhat after the fashion of the Scotch universities, having a principal and nine professors, teaching classics, mathematics, natural philosophy, chemistry, natural history, history and English literature, mental philosophy and political economy, jurisprudence, oriental and modern languages. As day and evening classes are held in these subjects, and periodical examinations conducted both by the professors themselves and by the University of London degree examiners, it may be easily seen that Manchester people enjoy opportunities of obtaining the higher education for their sons, and of thus filling up what may have been lacking to a short school training, such as are scarcely to be found elsewhere in England, at any rate out of the metropolis. The excellence of the education actually given is proved not only by the names of the professors, but by the constant increase in the number of students, and by the honours which they have taken in the London University examinations.* I was assured on all hands in Manchester that there was a growing interest felt in the welfare of the college, and a growing appreciation of the benefits which it conferred on the city. Nevertheless the result falls short of what might have been hoped. Looking at the population of Manchester and the surrounding district on the one hand, and at the extreme cheapness of the fees (16*l.* 16*s.* for the complete year's course, or, if separate classes are taken from 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.* to 4*l.* 4*s.* each) on the other, Owens College ought to have 400 or 500 day students instead of 130.

Difficulties under which it labours.

The causes of the apathy are unfortunately too plain. The same eager haste to be started in business which makes a parent cut short the school years of his children, makes him averse to let them

* In chemistry, for example, 14 candidates from Owens College have since 1857 gained honours (excluding those granted for medical degrees); while from University College, London, only 11, from King's College only 7 have done so in the same period.

spend a year or two after leaving school, in further study. The merchants themselves either cannot or do not see fit to make arrangements to enable their young men to take even an hour from business to attend the classes. Those wealthier people who can afford to let their sons stay longer from work think an education in Manchester not sufficiently genteel, and prefer to keep the boy till 18 at one of the large public schools of the south learning classics, or more probably cricket, when they might find at their own doors what would, intellectually at least, do more to make him a useful and cultivated man. Then the buildings of the college are in every way unsuited to its need, they stand in one of the most obscure parts of the city, and consist of small rooms in a private house, roughly adapted to their present purpose. Lying thus out of sight, the college has in a manner been out of mind also. I found people in Manchester who did not so much as know of its existence, while in some quarters its very newness and its unsectarian character seem to have created against it an unworthy and groundless prejudice.

Unsuitable buildings.

These disadvantages are perhaps sufficient to account for the limited measure of success which it has hitherto attained. Others, however, exist which will be felt even more than now when its operations come to be conducted on a larger scale. Although instituted to give an university education, it is (in its junior classes) practically to some extent a school also. Students may be admitted at 14, and many do come at 15 or 16. The average age of day students during the three sessions 1862–65 was 16·73.* This need not in itself prevent them from benefiting by the higher and freer teaching which it is the function of a professor, as distinguished from a schoolmaster, to give; there are indeed many persons who think it would be well if people entered Oxford and Cambridge a year or two younger than they do now. But the Owens College entrants are for the most part very ill prepared. They enrol themselves under the professor of classics, knowing little Latin and no Greek. They prepare to study mathematics when they have learnt no Euclid, or something which is worse than nothing, and can scarcely work the common rules of arithmetic; some of them enter the class of English literature unable to spell. An entrance examination would no doubt be the fitting remedy, but while the schools continue so inefficient as they are now this might press hardly upon the candidates, and would seriously diminish the number of students in the classes. Further, while Owens College is to some extent a school, it is a school without the means which other schools have of providing properly for the discipline and training of the pupils. The professors have no assistants to bring up the laggards of a class, or aid them in correcting the exercises done. They cannot oblige a student to do any of the work of the class; nor would they be able to enforce regular attendance and the maintenance of good order otherwise than by threatening to exclude the offender from the class. It is not indeed desirable that in such an institution, and among young men who ought to have reached

Defective preparation of the students.

* The average age seems to be rising: in the session 1866–67 it was about 17·5.

years of discretion, there should be any system of school punishments. And the conduct of the students is described by the principal as being for the most part exemplary. But if certificates of attendance, proficiency, and good conduct were regularly granted, and carried with them, as they do in the Scotch universities, substantial advantages—as a qualification for London University degrees and otherwise—the professor would have a hold over his students which he now wants, and the college as a whole would be correspondingly raised in public estimation.

These difficulties and defects it is, I need hardly say, beyond the power of the professors and trustees of the college to remedy—they must be aided in some points by the State, and in others by the subscriptions and the sympathy of Lancashire people. Money is needed to erect suitable lecture and examination rooms; a provision is needed for the case of students who, coming from a distance, may desire to board and lodge close to the college; above all, it is necessary that the merchants and manufacturers should better appreciate the value of a scientific and literary culture, and should insist less rigidly on having boys sent to warehouses and offices at 15 years of age.* Owens College has already, even under the disadvantages described, done a great deal of useful work; repairing in the case of some persons the defects of school training, giving to others a course of general instruction in the higher subjects which fits them for the liberal professions; above all, teaching science in a thoroughly philosophical way to persons who are to use it for practical purposes in their after life. With these disadvantages removed, with more imposing and commodious buildings, a supply of better prepared candidates, a more assured public position and reputation, it will be able to confer benefits greater than can easily be described upon the education not of Manchester only, but of the whole manufacturing districts in Lancashire, Yorkshire, and Cheshire.†

General Estimate of the Condition of Education in Manchester.

Briefly, then, to sum up. The higher education in Manchester, the education of culture and expansion, the education which befits a mind reaching maturity, exists in the Owens College, is in some measure already appreciated, and is likely to be more and more valued in time to come. What is commonly called a liberal education, mainly classical and mathematical, and intended to prepare for the universities or for the professions, is in a manner represented by the Grammar School, and will probably be sufficiently provided by that institution when its new scheme has come into operation. It is also supplied, though under a different form,‡ by some three or four of the best private schools. But the third—the practical or so-called commercial education, that received by boys who go at 14 or 15 into an office or a saleroom—is in a state

* Several merchants of eminence said that they believed some improvement might already be discerned in this respect, and that they did not doubt the old prejudice would in time be greatly weakened.

† In the Appendix to this report will be found a letter from the Principal of Owens College, giving some account of the scheme which has been formed for its extension, and of the steps that are being taken to carry out this scheme.

‡ Boys remain a shorter time in the private schools, less prominence is given to classics, and more has been done to introduce the teaching of science.

altogether lamentable, and the more lamentable that its defects are not, like those which may be noted in the state of the two former, necessary defects. While the haste and rush for wealth is what it is, while a father's first object is to have his son off his hands, and started on his own line of rails as soon as possible, one cannot hope that there will be a very great demand, either for the more rich and varied culture of an Owens College course, or for the clear vigorous discipline of a classical and mathematical curriculum lasting till 17 or 18. In both these cases a provision exists; it is the circumstances of Manchester life that prevent it from being properly used. But in the third case, and as respects the education of the bulk of the middle class, it is otherwise. The time of instruction is indeed unduly circumscribed; 16, and not 14, should be the limit. But up to 15 there is no reason whatever why the education should not be good and sound of its kind. That it is bad—that in a higher sense, as meaning something more than the teaching boys to spell and add, it is non-existent, is due to the want of a proper provision of schools. Those which exist (I speak again of the cheaper ones, which form of course the large majority) are too small, too feeble, and conducted by persons of too little capacity to enable them to accomplish one-half of what may be accomplished for a boy between 8 and 14.

Complaints of Manchester people respecting the higher deficiencies in existing schools.

That the condition of these schools is so unsatisfactory may appear to you strange and perhaps unaccountable. I should not, even after the examination of a considerable number of schools, have ventured to describe it in these terms upon the strength of my own observation alone; for the estimate which I formed of these schools, low as it was, was far higher than that which was given me by almost every person whose opinion I inquired. The better schoolmasters themselves, in some respects the best informed witnesses, each of them spoke of the education given by the great bulk of his brethren as almost worthless. The merchants declared that they seldom got anyone to enter their warehouses who could handle accounts with smartness and intelligence, or who had the slightest power of English composition, or whose intellect seemed to have been sharpened by education. One, I remember, the head of one of the chief firms in Manchester, gave me an instance which may be worth repeating. A place in his warehouse was vacant, and 118 candidates applied for it. Of these 30 were selected to be tested in writing and arithmetic. Only four of the 30 could find what 1,000 yards cost at 6*s.* 10½*d.* per yard, and of these four not one did the sum in the ordinary short way by which a business man would do it. The boys were mostly sons of people in a good position in life, with incomes of 400*l.* to 800*l.* per annum.

No persons have better means of knowing the capacities of young men when they leave school than the professors at Owens College, and they all speak in the severest terms of the wretched state of preparation in which a large proportion of their students come to them. "In arithmetic," said the professor of mathematics, "I "seldom or never find one who can explain the reasons of the "rules. They don't understand the principles of decimal notation, "they have no notion what a fraction is, and cannot tell what is

" the half of two-thirds added to three-fourths. Most of those who " come have done no Euclid, and those who have do it very ill, " and seem quite ignorant of the nature of deductive reasoning." The testimony of the other professors was similar. " It would be " better," said they, " that schools should not attempt to teach " chemistry and physics than that they should give the confused " smattering which is all we ever find in our students. Even the " spelling is bad, so bad that it is often a task to decipher a " student's exercise." Probably many of the worst prepared young men are from schools in the minor Lancashire towns, which are as much below the better Manchester schools as the latter are themselves below an ideal standard. But enough remains to show how great must be the defects in Manchester herself, the rather as the students in Owens College are persons above the average of the middle class in point of intelligence and social standing.*

Results of inquiries in a great warehouse.

Feeling anxious to approach the subject from another side, I went, by the kindness of the heads of one of the largest warehouses in Manchester, through the whole establishment, inquiring, in company with one of the chief people in the concern, where each of the salesmen and clerks had been educated, how long he had remained at school, and what he had learnt there. It appeared that about 50 per cent. came from private schools in or near Manchester, 20 per cent. from private or endowed schools elsewhere, 20 per cent. from Government (*i.e.* National or British schools), and 10 per cent. from the Manchester Grammar School. The private schools in which these 50 per cent. had been educated were reported to have contained from 30 to 60 boys, and had been for the most part taught by one master only. In one case my informant said, " We had no classes, all the teaching was individual." All insisted that their schoolmaster was, or at least was supposed to be, a good teacher. Nearly 90 per cent. of the whole number had left school at or before 14, having had a commercial education of the most meagre kind—reading, writing and arithmetic, flavoured by a little geography and English grammar; some few added drawing, but it turned out to have been mere copying from the flat. They had (except of course those who had been in Government schools) paid fees of from 2*l.* to 6*l.* per annum. To verify these results, I afterwards went through part of another great warehouse in the same way, and found that the answers of the persons questioned witnessed to a similar state of things, so similar, indeed, that it was not necessary to calculate the proportions afresh.

Returning to the case of the warehouse first mentioned, I may add that out of some 60 or more young and middle-aged men, only one or two went to the evening classes at Owens College, and one or two more to science classes elsewhere. This was certainly not owing either to want of means or want of time. The Owens College fees for evening classes are only 15*s.* for a course of twenty lectures, while, as respects time, the heads of the business assured me that hours of work are now far shorter in Manchester than they were some 30 years ago. They added that while education had remained very much at a stand-still, the zeal

and tastes of the young men appeared to them to have declined rather than improved. "Music," said they, "is a passion or a "fashion in the city; concerts and glee clubs occupy the time "and thoughts of many of the steadier young men, while the rest "resort to less innocent means of amusement. School seems to us "to have done nothing for the boys whom we receive, in the way of "quickening their intelligence, or giving them interests above and "beyond their work; there is not even that acuteness and power of "reasoning which are needed to discharge any of the higher func- "tions of a warehouseman with success, which would enable him, for "instance, when sent out to buy to forecast the state of trade for the "next few months, and judge what style of goods would then be in "demand, and at what prices it would be proper to buy them now."

Supposing these representations to be correct—and although many merchants doubted whether any education would make much difference to a boy's business capacity, none doubted that the present education was unsatisfactory—the question follows, to what causes is the low state of the schools to be traced? To this question the description of the phenomena supplies an easy answer.

Chief cause of present evils is parental apathy.

Parents are indifferent to education. Some value it on social grounds, and these send their sons either to the great schools of the south, or to expensive and select private schools in Manchester, where the fees paid are high enough to make a sound education possible. The great bulk are not fastidious as to the social character of the school, and are satisfied if it teaches the barest requisites for commercial life. The demand is for a bad article, and a bad article is therefore supplied. This is not so much because the consumer could not pay for a better, as because he does not recognize and value a better when presented to him. The fees now paid are not sufficient to remunerate a good teacher employing a competent staff, and the good teacher has no certainty that his merits will be appreciated. If therefore an able man enters the profession, he starts a school for the children of the upper middle class, and the clerks and warehousemen, who most need education and care least to provide themselves with it, are left to their fate.

Absence of richer people's sons at boarding schools.

There are certain minor causes which ought not to pass unmentioned. The practice of sending boys to boarding schools at a distance is certainly injurious to the better class of schools in Manchester. The presence of such boys, being for the most part the sons of the wealthier and more refined people, acts upon the tone and even the intelligence of a school, raises the spirits and ambition of the head master, and improves his social position. Their absence, and the belief that nothing he can do is likely to attract them, discourages him.

Competition of Privy Council schools.

So, too, at the other end of the social scale, the use of the Privy Council schools by the poorer middle class depresses private schools of the same rank. The fees of these National and British schools are so low (2*d.*, 3*d.*, 4*d.*, or at most 6*d.* per week)* that those of the private schools are depressed below their proper and reasonable level. And as the education given in the Privy Council schools includes all that is absolutely necessary for entering

* In some few cases the highest class pays 1*s.*, but this is quite the exception.

an office or a warehouse—that is to to say, writing and accounts—the people, even those who use private schools, set up for themselves a low standard of education, and do not support the schoolmaster who tries to give them something wider and better. Thus that very restriction of the Government teacher's attention to the elementary subjects which was designed to make the education of the poor thorough, and extend it to as great a number as possible, has incidentally come to injure the education of those classes for whom the Government schools were never intended. Still these are after all minor causes. Speaking generally, there can be do doubt that it is because parents do not value and cannot judge of a good education that education is now so bad. Nor is it to be expected that under the system of private adventure schools things will grow better.

Possible remedies.

An examination of the evil leads naturally to a consideration of possible remedies. As to what the chief remedy should be, I found a pretty general concurrence of opinion in Manchester. Since the people will not go to look for a good education, it is necessary that some public body, either the State or an independent organization of influential men, should set it before them and guarantee its goodness. That is to say, one or more cheap schools ought to be founded on a great scale, and placed under public management, offering to the commercial class, at prices not much higher than they now pay, an education wider and more thorough than they now receive.

Chief remedy suggested.

Public intervention to supply better schools.

The characteristic points of such a school would seem to be the following:—*

Nature of the schools required.

1. *As respects Fees.*—For less than 4*l.* per annum people agree in holding it impossible to give sound teaching, even of the plain English branches.† It is so important to have good teachers, even for the youngest boys, and at present so difficult to procure them, that one may doubt whether it would not be better to fix 5*l.* or 6*l.* as the minimum charge. From this the fees might rise, according to the age of the pupil or the subjects taught, up to 8*l.* or 10*l.*

2. *As respects the substance of the Education to be given.*—The course of instruction should profess to be mainly commercial; that is to say, arithmetic, leading up to algebra, together with English grammar and composition, should be made the centre and backbone of the teaching. But it would certainly be proper to have Latin regularly taught, although it need not be made compulsory, and had better be handled in a somewhat different and more rough and ready fashion than that which prevails now. Regular provision might also be made for the teaching of natural science, as well on the ground of its educational value, as of its practical utilities for various trades and manufactures. In a school of 500 boys or more, it would be easy to make such teaching efficient, and to give boys

* It seems best for the sake of clearness to mention essentials only, and not to discuss the many modifications of detail which might be suggested upon such a plan as that sketched out.

† The case of the Liverpool Institute school, to be afterwards described, goes to prove that a good education cannot be given in a self-supporting institution at 4*l.* a year.

who showed special aptitude for any one branch of study the opportunity of following it out to good purpose.

3. *As respects Organization.*—It would apparently be better to have such a school organized according to departments rather than on the usual system of forms. Each department—that of arithmetic and mathematics, for instance, those of classics, history, and geography, modern languages, natural science—would be placed under the charge of a single master, selected for his special qualifications, empowered to choose his assistant masters, and held responsible for the good teaching of that particular subject throughout the school.* At least these heads of departments, and possibly, as in the Liverpool College, every teacher throughout the school, should be paid not by a fixed salary but by a share, greater or less, according to the importance of his place, in the profits of the concern.

4. *As respects Government.*—The trustees or managing committee ought apparently to include two classes of persons. Some would, of course, be men of high education and holding positions of influence in the town, men whose names, like those of the grammar school trustees, command respect and inspire confidence. But as such men usually send their sons to school in the south of England, it would be well to associate with them a certain number of other citizens who are likely to use the school for their own children—persons who can understand and represent the wishes of the commercial community. The presence of this latter element in the governing or managing body seems necessary to keep the school in harmony with the bulk of the townspeople, and give them an interest in it, as that of the former is needed to restrain petty criticism and secure the dignity and independence of the head master.

It is hardly necessary to observe that in such a city as Manchester it would be of no use to start such a school, save upon a perfectly unsectarian basis. There are, of course, persons who believe—or profess to believe—that unsectarianism is the same thing as irreligion. But this is not the belief of the Manchester laity.†

Benefits to be expected from cheap public schools.

Passing over many minor points of organization, it may be well to endeavour to indicate briefly what good results might be hoped for from the establishment of such an institution (or, if necessary, of more than one) in Manchester:—

(1.) It might be expected to draw many children from the "cheap and nasty" private adventure schools, and to give them an education more comprehensive and more thorough than they now receive. More comprehensive, because being in a school where the elementary subjects led naturally up to the higher ones, the parents,

* The grounds which make this arrangement seem preferable particularly in the case of very large schools, to that which is now usually to be found, have been already stated (p. 668).

† After conversing on the matter with a great number of persons, I was led to believe that while there is a small party which desires distinctively Church of England schools and Nonconformist schools, and a somewhat larger party which desires purely secular schools, the great bulk of the laity wish religion to be recognized in a school, but the school itself to be considered undenominational.

however little they value the latter subjects, would not go out of their way to forbid the children to enter on them. Many a boy who now learns nothing but reading, writing, arithmetic, and geography, and leaves school at 13, would add a year to his education, take the rudiments of French and mathematics, and acquire some intelligent knowledge of history. More thorough, because the economy of labour in a large school would make it possible to supply, at a charge little higher than what is now made by the minor private schoolmasters, teaching incomparably better than that of the small school.

(2.) Many parents who now send their sons to cheap boarding schools would cease to do so. No day school can be so bad as a bad boarding school, and there is too much reason to believe that at present a considerable proportion of the cheaper, and a few even of the more expensive, boarding schools corrupt a boy's morals, while they neglect his intelligence.

(3.) Those cheap private adventure schools which were not extinguished would be improved by the example and the rivalry of a great institution maintaining an educational standard higher than the present one. Some few of these private schoolmasters are now doing their work well under great disadvantages,* and although experience shows that it is not safe to trust the welfare of education to the chance of their presence in any given locality at any given time, still no one can desire that they should be driven out of the field. The example of Liverpool seems to prove that this need not be feared.

(4.) In such a school good teaching could not fail to elicit the talents of many boys who would otherwise have gone straight to business at 13 or 14, and to induce both them and their parents to desire a more complete literary or scientific course. Some of these could no doubt afford to pursue it at their own cost; for the case of others it would be easy to make provision by means of school scholarships or the offer of a free education. And in this way a great commercial school might become a feeder to the Grammar School and to Owens College, to the great benefit of both institutions, as well as to its own. For there is no such powerful stimulus to boys, even in the lower classes of a school, as the prospect of promotion, and the knowledge that promotion may open a career extending beyond the school into their future life.

Functions of the Grammar School in a comprehensive scheme of education for the city.

The foundation of cheap and large schools for the commercial class, although by itself a useful and indeed necessary measure of educational reform, would become the source of much greater good if carried out in connexion with those two other projects of which mention has already been made—the reorganization of the Grammar School and the extension of Owens College. A popu-

* One such school has already been described in the chapter on private schools (p. 556); its owner was a vigorous man who would have maintained himself against the competition of a great school charging fees the same as his own. In fact he agreed that something of the kind was much wanted. There is another in Manchester, which I have already mentioned, as it has a quasi-public character—the "Manchester Commercial Schools" in Stretford New Road; it is doing good in the neighbourhood (although some of the teaching is not what it should be), and ought not to fear the establishment of a new school on a grander scale.

lation so large as that of Manchester and her neighbourhood is more than sufficient to support one great day school with a complete classical and mathematical curriculum, such as may prepare boys to compete for scholarships at the universities or for appointments in the Indian Civil Service. Such a place the Grammar School seems to be called upon and fitted by its traditions, its endowment, and its lately regained reputation to occupy. It is true that, in order to procure a teaching staff adequate to the work, fees must be imposed; but if, as the scheme of the feoffees proposes, a large number of free places are reserved for deserving candidates, this need not make it any less useful to the poor, while to other classes the gain will be clear. Under a management as able and vigorous as that of its present head master, it might then become not only the natural place of education for those whose parents design them for the learned professions, but a sort of central or metropolitan school for the commercial schools of the city and the minor grammar schools of the surrounding district.

Of Owens College.

As regards Owens College, I have already attempted to show how closely its efficiency is bound up with that of the schools by which it is fed. The bad state of preparation in which boys are now sent up to enter, forces the professors to expend half their time and energies upon mere drill work. An improvement in the Lancashire schools, while it would before long increase the number of the students in Owens College, and by consequence its income and reputation, would also enable the professors to make the place more of a college and less of a school. Presuming in their hearers that thorough elementary training, without which it is impossible to profit by lectures, they would be able to effect much more than can now be hoped for in the way of enlarging their knowledge and stimulating their intellectual interests. And this increased activity and influence of Owens College would eventually react upon the schools themselves, promoting the demand for a superior education, and giving a larger supply of intelligent and cultivated teachers.

Education of the poorer classes in Manchester.

It will not have escaped your notice that nothing has been as yet said of one great department of the educational phenomena of Manchester—the condition of the poor. Over against the fact on which I have already dwelt—the use of the Government schools by a class for whom they were not intended—must be set another fact, that the Government schools are not used by the class for whom, more perhaps than for any other, they were intended—the indigent, the idle, the improvident. No one doubts the immense services which the Privy Council system has rendered. But these services have chiefly consisted, according to my Lancashire informants, in the giving of a sounder instruction to persons who previously got some sort of instruction—in the substitution of good elementary schools for the dame's school in the country and the lowest class of private adventure school in the towns. State aid has failed and still fails to reach those who never went to school at all. Within the last year or two, by the exertions of several philanthropic citizens, and chiefly of the late Mr. Edward Brotherton, one of the most truly benevolent and single-minded men whom Lancashire has

ever had to lament, people in Manchester have been awakened to the existence among them of a vast mass of ignorance and misery on which neither the schoolmaster nor the minister of religion exerts any perceptible influence. To set fully before you the state of things disclosed by these recent inquiries, I should have to quote almost *in extenso* the reports of the Manchester Statistical Society and the Education Aid Society, as well as the letters of Mr. Brotherton and others in the Manchester newspapers; I will therefore mention only one or two of the facts stated by them.

Pauperism has greatly increased. The average poor rate during the 20 years from 1820 to 1840 was, in the township (*i.e.*, the central part of the city) of Manchester, 2*s.* 11*d.* in the pound; during the next 20 years, 1840 to 1860 (when Lancashire trade was so prosperous, and before the cotton famine) it was 3*s.* 9¾*d.*; although the rateable value of property in the township had increased far more rapidly than its population. Education has not advanced, but, if anything, declined. In 1834, according to the returns of the Manchester Statistical Society, 967 children out of every 10,000 persons in Manchester and Salford were at school; in 1861 only 908; showing a falling off of 6·69 per cent. Yet in 1834 the Privy Council grants did not exist, nor had factory schools and the half-time system been introduced. In Manchester and Salford there are, it is estimated, at this moment not less than 97,000 children between the ages of 3 and 12, or 4 and 13, and of these less than 25,000 are in Government schools. Allowing for some who may be in other elementary schools (though these are but few), and for those who go to schools of a higher social rank, the fact remains that about three-fifths of the juvenile population are not receiving education anywhere.* The causes of these evils are familiar enough to every one. Many of the parents are too poor to pay the school fees, even of a penny a week, in most cases from their own improvidence or vice, for there was never a better demand for labour in Manchester than there is at this moment. Then many are sent to work while still in early childhood, at 7 or 8 years of age, for although the Factory Acts are tolerably well observed (whereas in the country districts one finds the Mining Acts openly disregarded), there is in most trades no restriction at all upon the employment of children. Yet neither of these prolific sources of popular ignorance is so fatal as the stupid listless apathy of parents. There are thousands upon thousands of children in Manchester, whose fathers and mothers could well afford to pay 2*d.* a week for their schooling, and who do not put them to any sort of work, but let them run wild about the courts and lanes, growing up to maturity in idleness, forming those restless reckless habits which will make them unfit to become skilled workmen, or learning vice from example, and going to swell the numbers of the criminal class. So determined is the resistance of these people to

Increase of pauperism.

Number of children receiving no education.

* This estimate is taken from the Report of the Education Aid Society for 1866. As it has been disputed it may be well to state another, possibly more correct. According to this there are 82,300 children who ought to be at school in Manchester and Salford. At present there are but 55,000 on the books of all schools (including those used by the upper and middle classes), and the average attendance is only 38,000.

all the efforts of benevolence, so sullen their indifference to the means of instruction already provided for them, that I found most of those Manchester men who had thought about the matter, convinced that nothing but a system of compulsory education would meet the needs of the case. Some were for imposing a more stringent educational test upon employment, extending the provisions of the factory laws to other sorts of labour, and making it penal to employ any uneducated person of less than a certain fixed age. Others held that such remedies might lessen but would not remove the evil; they advocated a system not less universal nor less rigid than the Prussian. Both parties were, however, agreed that the public was not yet aware of the horror and danger of the present state of things, and therefore not prepared for drastic remedies. Hence they have, in the first place, attempted to deal with those cases in which ignorance arises from poverty by the institution of the Education Aid Society, whose agents visit from house to house, and pay the fees of those children whom they can tempt to school. The funds of this society being unequal to the need, its supporters now propose the imposition of a local rate—say of 6*d.* in the pound—to subsidize existing schools, and aid in the establishment of others (denominational or undenominational), under Government inspection in the most neglected districts. There are some who hold the principle of local rating to be the basis of a truly national system of education, and who desire to see it, when once introduced, applied in course of time to schools of a higher grade. The American system is, in their opinion, the only sound one; and each local community ought to be bound, here as there, to support not only elementary but commercial and higher schools, one or more, in proportion to the size and resources of the community; schools rising above one another in orderly series, in which a sound education may be provided, under public management, for children of every class. Whatever may be said for or against such a scheme, there is too little probability of its being at present seriously discussed in this country to make it worth while to dwell further upon it. It has rather been my object, in digressing into the subject of elementary education, to call your attention to the fact that while the Government schools are giving education, at very low charges, to a class of persons for whom they were not meant, and who are well able to pay for it, they are doing nothing for the class who most need it, and who neither will nor can procure it for themselves. It is difficult to see what remedy can be applied under the existing system. Article IV. (explained by supplementary rule No. 10) of the Revised Code forbids a grant to be claimed for children above the manual labour class, but it is found far from easy to enforce this rule; managers and schoolmasters often combine, unless rumour does them great injustice, to hoodwink the inspector; and neither managers nor schoolmasters can be sure of extracting the truth from parents.*

Diversion of the public grants to the education of the lower middle class.

* In his Report to the Committee of Council on Education, published in their Report for 1865, Mr. E. H. Brodie, Her Majesty's Inspector of British and other Protestant schools in South Lancashire, speaks as follows:—"Article IV. of the

Moreover, a great many of those whom the letter of the rule admits to share in the grant are perfectly well able, better able than some whom, even on a favourable interpretation, it must exclude, to pay a good fee—1*s.* 6*d.* a week or more—for the instruction they receive.* Every one must acknowledge the improvement in the quality of elementary education which has been brought about by the Privy Council system; and no one can wish to see its schools rigidly restricted to the indigent, since this would aggravate that social separation between the lower and the middle class which there is already reason to regret. But it is also plain that the public money is not now spent where it is most needed.

General conclusions.

There are, it need not be remarked, many other measures besides those mentioned above by which education in Manchester might be improved. Being, however, equally applicable elsewhere, there is no special ground for discussing them here. What Manchester seems chiefly to need is the public provision of a sound education for boys of what is called the poorer middle class, between the ages of 8 and 15, and the establishment of some sort of definite relation and harmonious working between the different teaching institutions of the city. The welfare of each is interwoven more closely than might at first sight appear with that of the others. The higher the level of commercial education, so much the greater will be the numbers of those competent and desirous to profit by the Owens College course; the greater the number of cultivated men produced by Owens College and the Grammar School, so much more interest will be felt in the education of the poor, and so much higher will be the value which society sets upon other qualities than practical smartness. Mixed with those self-complacent glorifications of material progress and increase which are so frequent and so pardonable in a city like Manchester, there may be heard an undertone of muttered complaint that things are in some respects degenerating. "The generation who made

"Revised Code states that the education grant is intended only for children of the "labouring classes, those who support themselves by manual labour, and Rule 10 of "the 'supplementary rules' suggests various modes of ascertaining whether a child is "or is not of this class. Having hailed this rule with much satisfaction, I much "regret now to report that I think it impotent to elicit the truth, even when backed by "all the inquiries which can be made on the inspection day. Truth is notoriously "difficult to obtain in a breeches pocket question, as the income tax shows. I find that "out of 17,251 presented for examination, $\frac{88}{100}$ths of whom passed, not 200 have been "excluded from payment, as being above the manual labour class, and in night schools "out of 725 passed, five only for similar reasons. That this is very far from represent-"ing the real state of the case, in this district at least, I am very sure; and the fact is "doubly important, when, according to the latest statistics, 50,000 children of the "lowest class are stated to be running about the streets of Manchester and Salford "alive, entirely without education, despite all our schools." That is to say, not $\frac{1}{86}$th part of the whole number examined were excluded from a grant; although I found that in some Government schools the children belonging to the middle class are $\frac{1}{10}$th of the whole number, and had good reason to believe that the same is the case in many other schools. Many of the private schoolmasters in the district have formerly taught in National and British schools, and their testimony was almost unanimous to the presence in those schools of many sons of shopkeepers and others who could afford 4*l.* a year for their children's education.

* I have already remarked on the fact that in private schools I constantly found children paying 15*s.* or 1*l.* a quarter, or even more, who belonged to exactly the same class as those in the Government schools, who had perhaps themselves come straight from a National or British school, and on whom a grant had been claimed.

" Manchester what it is—vigorous, enterprising, public-spirited men " —are dropping off, and leave us but few successors. The great " manufacturers have made fortunes; their sons have been educated " in the public schools of the south, and have imbibed the feelings " that prevail in those seminaries; they are often half ashamed of " business, and, if they interest themselves in Manchester things at " all, interest themselves chiefly in balls and concerts. The children of " the poorer commercial men, on the other hand, have had a bare " and narrow education which gives them no tastes beyond and above " their work, and makes them unable to adorn the wealth their prac- " tical talent so often achieves. The last generation, it is true, started " with no greater advantages of culture than the present enjoys, but " the last generation sprang straight from the people, and had the " strength of the people in their veins; they rose along with the " greatness of the city, and were filled by a spirit which comes only " in times of change and rapid development. That burst of life is " over, and although population and wealth increase with scarcely " diminished speed, many of us lament that there is less interest in " projects of public good; that even politics languish; that the gulf " between rich and poor is every day widening; that employers " and workpeople feel more bitterly towards each other; that the " condition of the pauper class, if it grows no worse, grows at any " rate no better." I do not profess to judge how far these darker views represent the truth, but the passion for material comfort and display is too conspicuous for anyone to doubt the importance of meeting and tempering it by the influence of higher tastes and studies. Without vaunting education as a social and moral panacea, it may be accounted to be the most direct and the most certainly beneficial influence that can be brought into action. It is reasonable to believe that results the same in nature, if less considerable in degree, than those which are expected from the diffusion of knowledge among the ignorant classes, will flow from the giving a sounder and more elevating education to those who now receive, like the bulk of the middle class, a meagre and superficial one. Nor is there any place where a complete and harmonious educational system could be more easily established than in Manchester. Possessing already in its Grammar School a classical school of celebrity, possessing in Owens College an organ of the higher studies such as exists in no other commercial town throughout England, lying in the centre of a thickly-peopled district of which it is the acknowledged metropolis, it wants only a proper provision of schools for those whose schooling ends at 15 to make its educational and intellectual state worthy of the fame which it has won as the foremost representative of English manufacturing industry, as the source and centre of an influence which has acted powerfully upon English political thought.

III.—Liverpool.

Elements of the population of Liverpool.

Liverpool and Birkenhead have not only a joint population at least equal to that of any town in England, London excepted, but may be considered to form the largest purely mercantile community on this side the Atlantic. The manufactures which exist are few and unimportant; it is trade and trade only that gives occupation to this huge mass of inhabitants. A great part of the population is of course fluctuating, and another large part consists of Irish immigrants who come over meaning to take ship for America, but want the means or resolution to proceed further, and so settle themselves here, sinking in a few months into a state of helpless wretchedness such as is hardly to be paralleled elsewhere. When allowance has been made, however, for these abnormal elements of population, it seems probable that the proportion of the middle class to the working class is greater here than either in Manchester or in any of the other manufacturing towns. What may be called the upper section of this commercial middle class consists for the most part of merchants and brokers, especially those cotton brokers in whose hands is the staple trade of Lancashire, its lower of a vast multitude of clerks and shopkeepers. At the desks of some of the great firms there may be found the sons not only of the wealthiest Liverpool men, but of the landed gentry throughout England, persons who come to learn business in hopes of a partnership. But the mass are clerks by profession, receiving fixed salaries of from 60*l.* or 80*l.* to 300*l.* per annum, and in a few cases, where the post is of great confidence, 900*l.* or 1,000*l.* There are also many seafaring men householders in Liverpool, captains and mates of ships whose families live here while they are away on a voyage, and over and above these the usual proportion of professional men. Speaking generally, it may be said that the most distinguishing feature in the social condition of the place as compared with other towns, is the immense number it contains of persons ranking as gentlemen, but receiving fixed and for most part very limited salaries.

Character of the education which this population requires.

The education which such a population desires is of course mainly commercial, and, as such, virtually identical with that which has been described in treating of Manchester. Arithmetic and writing must in both be the basis of everything else, and it is only in details that a difference appears in the respective requirements of the two cities. The manufacturing industry of Manchester and her neighbourhood makes some knowledge of natural science frequently available for practical purposes. In Liverpool the most serviceable professional education hinges rather on mathematics than on chemistry or mechanics, and consists chiefly of the elements of practical astronomy and navigation. English composition, too, is of even greater value in Liverpool than in Manchester, since business is in the one done chiefly by letter, in the other by direct sale to a visible buyer. A knowledge of modern languages, especially of Spanish, is perhaps somewhat more useful in Liverpool, but, as has been said already, the practical commercial utility of such knowledge, unless when it is a familiar and colloquial knowledge, is not great anywhere.

As respects the value set upon education in the higher sense of the word, upon intellectual refinement and the possession of literary or scientific tastes, I do not know that there is any sensible difference between the tone of public opinion in the two cities. Liverpool is less new, and accounts herself less rough than her rival; her society is perhaps a shade more exclusive, and those intellectual qualities which enable a man to shine in society, and are a guarantee of respectable birth and training, may therefore be rather more highly prized. In Manchester there is a much more lively interest in scientific studies, and in questions of public economy, while Liverpool is still proud of the fame which a group of well-known literary men won for her some thirty years ago. In both towns the average parent equally desires his boy to be expert in penmanship and accounts, and is equally content to let other things take their chance.

Existing provision for education.

Liverpool stands, as respects her educational institutions, in a very peculiar position. All the other great towns of England—Manchester, Birmingham, Bristol, Leeds, Sheffield, Newcastle, Preston, Wolverhampton, possess endowed grammar schools, Liverpool alone has none. The want, however, is more than made up for by the existence of three great public day schools, the College,* the Institute, and the Royal Institution, the two former of which are of a size scarcely equalled, and certainly not surpassed, elsewhere. In none of the three is the course of study so predominantly classical as in schools like Harrow, Rugby, and Cheltenham, or as in many of the grammar schools of the second rank. A description has already been given in the earlier part of this report of these three schools. Nothing more than the briefest account of their practical result upon the town need find a place here.

The Royal Institution School.

The Royal Institution School is of the three the smallest, and the most purely classical. It numbers at present a bout 100 boys, who enter usually at from 11 to 13 years of age, and leave at from 15 to 18. The fees are 26*l.* 5*s.* per annum (including everything except drawing), with an entrance fee of 2*l.* 2*s.*† The curriculum is chiefly classical and mathematical, intended to prepare boys for the universities, whither two or three proceed annually. The great majority, however, enter merchants' offices at 15 or 16, or leave for professions at 17. Considerable pains are therefore bestowed on the commercial instruction, especially upon modern languages.‡ Both the head and second masters are teachers of conspicuous ability and success, and the school therefore enjoys and deserves a high reputation in the town and the surrounding district.

The College.

The College, or Collegiate Institution as it was till lately called, is on a far larger scale. It consists of three wholly distinct schools (under one roof and one head master), the pupils of each of which meet only for prayers in the morning, and are even then not suffered to mix with each other. The distinction between them is one both of fees and of the kind of education provided, and the line of social demarcation is very sharply marked, especially as between the upper and middle schools. The upper school (about 180 boys, fees 23*l.* 2*s.*

* Formerly called the Collegiate Institution.

† Sons of proprietors pay 21*l.*

‡ French, for example, is very well taught.

corresponds to the Royal Institution School; its curriculum is mainly classical and mathematical, and it possesses exhibitions to the universities. Of the 40 boys, however, who leave it annually, not more than four or five go to Oxford and Cambridge; the rest are absorbed by business, and seldom remain later than 16 or 17, although for the most part the sons of persons in easy circumstances. The middle school (about 300 boys) is filled by the children of the better class of shopkeepers and clerks; its fee is fixed at 11*l.* 11*s.*, and boys usually leave it for business at 15. Latin, French, and mathematics, (Euclid, and the earlier part of algebra, with occasionally a little trigonometry) are taught throughout; great stress is laid upon arithmetic, and something is done towards natural science and German. Greek is not taught. The education given in the lower school (fees 5*l.* 5*s.*) is commercial in a narrower sense of the word: there is no Latin* nor German, and not very much mathematics. French, however, is taught to all boys who remain long enough, as are the elements of natural science (chemistry or physics), and drawing, and in so far the course of instruction is distinctly superior to that of the Privy Council schools, from which many of the pupils come. There are about 370 boys in this department, the children of small shopkeepers, clerks, and the better class of mechanics, and the average age of leaving school is 14.

The Institute is also divided, but into two instead of three departments. Its lower, the commercial school, corresponds to the lower school of the college; its upper, the high school, answers in the main to the middle school of the college, though to some extent to the upper school also. The studies of the High School (fees 8*l.* to 16*l.*, in the preparatory section 6*l.*), are Greek (learnt by about $\frac{1}{9}$th of the scholars),† Latin (by all), mathematics (by one half), French (by $\frac{3}{4}\frac{3}{8}$th), German (by $\frac{1}{15}$th), chemistry (by $\frac{1}{3}$rd), and the ordinary branches of an English education. There are about 230 boys in the school, the sons of the richer shopkeepers and clerks, and of some few merchants and professional men; they come at all ages and leave usually at 15. The curriculum in the commercial school (fees 4*l.* 4*s.*, in the preparatory section 3*l.* 10*s.*) is of course more restricted; Latin and French are extras (1*l.* 10*s.* per annum each), and in 1864 only $\frac{1}{36}$th of the whole number of boys were at work on the former of these subjects, $\frac{1}{16}$th upon the latter. Mathematics is taught to the four highest classes, consisting at present of 174 boys, chemistry to the six highest classes (285 boys). The total number of boys averages 700; they are the sons of shopkeepers, clerks, and artizans, and seldom remain at school after 13½ or 14 years of age. The Institute.

It will be seen from this that these two great establishments cover the whole social area of what is called the middle class. The

* Since the above description, which refers to the state of the school as it was in 1865, was written I have been informed by the present head-master that about 50 or 60 boys in the lower school (out of a total of 400 or upwards) are now taught Latin, and that a certain number in the middle school are now taught Greek.

† These are the proportions of boys who are at any one moment learning each of these subjects; they do not, of course, exactly represent the course of studies, for every boy who remains long enough in the school is taught mathematics (for instance), as well as French; and in the highest class boys must learn either Greek or German.

brothers of many boys in their lower departments may be found in National or British schools; the brothers of others in the higher departments are at Eton or Harrow. In the general arrangements of both there is, with many differences of detail, a considerable general similarity, the chief point of distinction being that whereas the College is professedly connected with the Church of England, and teaches Anglican doctrine to scholars whose parents do not object thereto, the Institute was founded and continues to be managed as a place of purely secular instruction. Hence each school has come to be associated with a political party in the town, and has gained thereby a certain amount of support in some quarters, of opposition in others. In point of numbers they are nearly abreast, each averaging 900 boys, nor is there any notable difference in the nature of the instruction given. The Institute lays more stress on natural science, which is worked with considerable vigour in its commercial school, while the College teaches Latin to a much larger, and mathematics to a somewhat larger, number of pupils. Considering that both are self-supporting, the education which they give must be pronounced cheap. In the lower departments, and especially in that of the Institute, there is reason to believe it to be too cheap, that is to say, too cheap to pay sufficiently good salaries to the masters.

The private adventure schools.

Besides these public, there are in and around Liverpool many private adventure schools, of all sizes, sorts, and conditions. There are among them, especially in some of the outer suburbs, several as expensive and professing to give as high an education as the best in Manchester. These, however, are few; the better class of day scholars are mostly absorbed by the three public schools, especially the Royal Institution and the College; and the private schools are, therefore, supported chiefly by the lower middle class, who desire a cheap and very plain education. Their fees range from 2*l.* 10*s.* to 8*l.* (in rare cases to 12*l.* or 16*l.*) per annum. They teach reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, some English grammar, history, and book-keeping; now and then, and to a few boys, Latin or French. There is nothing to distinguish them from private schools elsewhere, unless it be that a certain number of them are taught by persons who have had some previous training or other qualification for the work, men from training colleges, or who have laboured as assistant-masters in the College and Institute, or have been in the normal schools, possibly even for a session or two in the universities of Scotland.* Their general level is certainly above that of private schools in the smaller towns, and apparently above that of the cheap schools in Manchester.

On the other hand, it is not in Liverpool, but rather on the Cheshire side of the Mersey, that we must look for schools comparable to the most expensive of the Manchester private schools. Birkenhead, with Claughton, Tranmere, Rockferry, and other adjacent suburbs, seems a very favourite place as well for ladies' as for boys' schools; owing, I suppose, to the reputed healthiness of the locality, and to the facility of obtaining from Liverpool good

* Lancashire contains an immense number of Scotch immigrants; and in Liverpool a good many of them may be found engaged in teaching.

masters for music, dancing, and modern languages. These are, however, rather boarding than day schools, and such day scholars as do use them seldom cross the ferry from Liverpool, but are the children of people whose place of business is in Liverpool and their residence on the Cheshire side.

In the private schools, both of the higher and lower grade, there may occasionally be found active and painstaking men, who do much good to their pupils, especially to the elder ones, who come more directly under them. But the average standard of knowledge and intelligence in them is, so far as I could judge, distinctly inferior to that of the three public schools. The assistant masters in the College and Institute, although some of them far from satisfactory, are generally better than ushers in private schools; the head masters are pretty certain to be men of high education, capacity, and energy, able to give a tone to the teaching of the whole school; and the great size of the establishment makes possible a more perfect organization of teaching power, and a more exact distribution of boys into classes suited to their stage of progress.

Merits of the private schools.

It is not easy to state the motives which determine a parent in choosing a school for his son; but we may believe that he is as much guided by an estimate of social as of educational advantages. The high fees and the classical system of the Royal Institution and of the upper school in the College make them the most select places of education; and in the College there is a very sharp line of demarcation between the scholars of the upper and those of the middle and lower schools—a line which its arrangements bring into an unfortunate prominence. The Institute being cheaper is of course proportionately less select, and the distinction between its "high" and "commercial" schools seems to be of an educational rather than a social character. Thus, speaking generally, it may be said that the richer people of Liverpool send their sons either to the Royal Institution or College, or to some preparatory school, whence they may afterwards proceed to the south of England. The bulk of the commercial class resort either to the College and Institute or to the cheap private schools. The population of Liverpool was in 1861 443,938 (parliamentary limits). Supposing it to have now reached 480,000, and taking the proportion of boys of the middle class of school age to be 11 to every 1,000 of the population, this would give 5,280 scholars to be accounted for. Of these nearly 1,900 are in the three great public schools, that is, not quite $\frac{4}{11}$ of the whole. What proportion of the remainder (after allowing for those sent from home to boarding schools) are in private and what in Government (National and British) schools, there are no data enabling me to state. But all my informants agreed in declaring that here, as in Manchester, many children of shopkeepers, clerks, and well-to-do artizans, able to afford 15*s.* or 1*l.* a quarter, were being educated at from 2*d.* to 6*d.* a week, in schools for which the country pays, a capitation grant being claimed and obtained for most of them (over and above the payment on attendance); while even the rest (those few on whom a grant is not claimed) got their schooling at one third or one fourth of its market price, paying, perhaps, 12*s.* to 1*l.* per annum, while at the Institute they

Social status of the various schools.

would have had to pay 4*l.* The same evils, it need hardly be said, result from this practice; the fees of the cheap schools are depressed, and the public money does but little to educate and raise that wretched and helpless population which fills the lanes and courts of the northern parts of Liverpool.

It ought also to be remarked that here, as in other parts of Lancashire, a very large number of the sons of wealthier people are sent from home, some when they reach 14, others even from 10 or 11, probably in the first instance to a preparatory school. There is more reason for the practice in Liverpool than in many towns, for its suburbs, especially towards the east and south-east—in the direction of Woolton and Aigburth—stretch out to so great a distance that many boys would have to go daily 10 miles or more to and from school. There is perhaps no place in England where so few of the richer people live absolutely in the town, yet scarce any preparatory schools of a high order are to be found in the outlying districts.

General Result.—Condition of Education in Liverpool.

It will appear from what has been said that there is, if not a perfectly adequate, yet a fairly sufficient provision in Liverpool for the instruction of all classes of society. The institutions which give it have the advantage of public management; and the fact that they are not endowed, but self-supporting, obliges them to consult the wishes of the people, and requires them to charge a fair price for what they give, instead of depressing by a free education—as is sometimes the case with endowed schools—the fees of the private schools which exist alongside of them. That very evil to which public attention has only just been called in London, the want of a sound plain education for the poorer commercial class, was felt in Liverpool long ago, and has been met by the College and the Institute on a scale and with a success which entitle them to far more attention from educational reformers than they have hitherto received.

Education actually given: three types distinguishable.

In the education provided in Liverpool three types may be distinguished. The first is that of a complete classical and mathematical course, lasting till (on an average) 18 years of age. Not more than 5 per cent. receive it. The second is mainly commercial, including, however, Latin, French, and the elements of mathematics. About 35 per cent. receive it. The third is the narrowly commercial, which is, in fact, little more than elementary, although it usually includes some history, geography, and English grammar, and is sometimes decorated by a little profitless book-keeping or mensuration. It falls to the lot of some 60 per cent. These numbers—which are, of course, merely approximative*—make no account of that large body of children (belonging to the middle class) who receive an elementary education in the Government schools. They

* Unfortunately even the schools which did make returns to the paper of questions which you directed me to send to them, made them frequently without filling up the tables, which were the most vital part. The calculation in the text is therefore nothing more than a rough estimate, although probably one substantially correct. An estimate apparently different has been given on a preceding page, but I have there taken curriculum (γ) to include even less than what is here called the third type.

are in substance an expression of the fact that the vast majority of Liverpool boys are destined for business—going to it at 16 if their parents are in easy circumstances, at 14 if their means are narrow. It is only those designed for the university or for professions who are suffered to pursue their studies until 18. The difference in this respect between Lancashire and some other parts of England, where a smaller proportion of the boys are devoted to business, and where it is supposed that a business life may begin later, is very remarkable. It makes the quality of the education received before 14 or 16 a matter of all the greater consequence, and it suggests the need of encouraging young men in offices to continue to enlarge their knowledge and their tastes even when systematic instruction has ceased.

Quality of this education.

Complaints made by merchants and others.

Respecting the quality of the education given, it is less easy to speak. In conversing with merchants and other employers of educated labour in Liverpool, I was met by complaints similar—though perhaps less strong—to those which have been mentioned as made in Manchester. It is said to be hard to find a youth of 15 who can write a clear swift hand, and do any sum in practice or interest that is not stated exactly after the fashion of his text book. A boy who can compose an English letter neatly and grammatically on a given subject is, it seems, a perfect phœnix; one who can write a French or German letter is not to be found at all. Some went so far as to conclude that the existing schools must be bad, to judge from the specimens they turned out. In estimating the weight to be attached to these representations, it is proper to remember, in the first place, that a very great number of the boys in Liverpool offices have not been educated there, but come from places up and down the country, frequently from small towns as well in Cheshire, Shropshire and Wales as in Lancashire itself, where the private schools are usually very bad. With regard to many others, it was not possible to ascertain whether they came from Liverpool private schools, or from the three public schools, or whether, if from these latter, they had been there long enough for the teaching to have made any impression upon them. Many boys, I found, came to the Institute to "finish," and remain for a year, or even for six months only; and the head master of the College told me that the average length of a boy's stay there did not exceed two years. More than one merchant said that he did find boys better prepared from the College and Institute than from private schools, giving, at the same time, instances of College and Institute boys who reflected no great credit on their place of instruction. Taking these statements into consideration, and comparing them with such results as independent observation had led me to form, the following conclusions seemed to be indicated as probably true.

(*a*) As respects Liverpool schools generally.

Comparative efficiency of the private adventure and the three public schools.

The private adventure schools are, as a whole, inferior to the three public schools. Every here and there among them one finds a good one—that is to say, a clever active man as head or sole teacher,—and every here and there a boy who does better in a small than in a large school; but, speaking generally, the chances of getting a good education in the public school as against the private are as five to three. If this be so, it may be asked how the private

How the private schools maintain themselves.

schools contrive to support themselves against such formidable rivals. The reasons are apparently these :—

Firstly.—The College and Institute were both of them for a long time in low water (owing to a variety of causes into which I need not enter), and it is only within the last few years that by the able management of their late respective head masters, Dr. Howson and the Rev. Joshua Jones, they have risen to their present pitch of prosperity. Want of space, and the extremely onerous nature of the duties imposed on the head master of schools so huge, will not permit them to increase much further.

Secondly.—Liverpool is an enormous place, and seems to cover more ground in proportion to its population than any other great town in England. Many of the inhabitants live too far away from the public schools for their children to go daily thither and return on foot. Some parents fear to let their children walk even for a mile or two through Liverpool streets, which are supposed, owing to the large seafaring population, to be more dangerous or disagreeable than those of most cities.

Thirdly.—A great many people prefer a school where they can walk in and snub the schoolmaster. They like to be courted, as a private schoolmaster so often is forced to court them. They don't like the necessity of submitting to rules and letting their son be swallowed up in the mass, which the arrangements of the public schools involve.

Fourthly.—Of the value which parents set upon "individual teaching," and of the real nature and merits of the same, I have spoken already (p. 575). The private schoolmasters think that it is in the giving of this that their strength lies. They are so far right, that in a small school an energetic master can more easily impress himself upon each boy, and make it more disagreeable for him to be idle. On the other hand, energetic men are not content with small schools, and are therefore rarely to be found there. The teacher's attention is distracted and his time wasted in the effort to give special instruction to each pupil; hence, although there are some timid and unambitious boys who do profit more in small than in large schools, the gain to these does not compensate the general loss.*

The fact, therefore, that the private schools have hitherto continued to hold their ground does not prove either their absolute merits, or the undesirableness of extending the public school system.

(*b*) As respects the three public schools.

Although the complaints made of the deficiencies of boys coming from the three public schools were less loud than those directed against the private adventure and Privy Council schools, they were numerous enough to make it necessary to estimate their probable worth. Having spent a good deal of time in the Royal Institution, the College, and the Institute, and having heard the

* It is proper to say that I visited one or two private schools which seemed to be doing a very useful work in this way, and which would no doubt continue to do it even if the system of public schools were extended further. One such occurs to me which lay almost under the shadow of the College, and yet had gone on prospering for some twenty years or more.

testimony of many persons conversant with the working of all three, I have no sort of doubt that all are substantially excellent schools. The teaching in several of the classes, which I should be glad to particularize if it were not invidious to do so, seemed to me in the highest degree intelligent and thorough. At the same time it is not to be doubted that there are in these schools, as in other human institutions, weak points, which from time to time make themselves visible, and give rise to the complaints whereof I have spoken. Weak points is only another name for weak teachers, and a certain number of the teachers in the lower departments of the College, and, as I believe, a somewhat greater number in the Institute, are undeniably incompetent. They are not grossly ignorant, like the ushers in so many private schools, nor are they slothful; what they want is force and intellectual life. The system of the school and the oversight of the head master keeps them up to a certain extent, but it is impossible for men themselves poorly educated, of no great natural and absolutely no acquired capacity for teaching, to maintain good discipline, or produce much effect upon boys' minds, no matter how elementary the subject they deal with. Their teaching, like that of the average master in a Privy Council school, is mechanical, and therefore unstimulating—they do not so much teach as hear lessons. It is needless to say that the head masters of the College and Institute do their best to procure competent men, but as has been shown already,* the supply of competent men is not equal to the demand, and will not be sensibly improved † until salaries rise a good deal above what they are now. The commercial school of the Institute and the lower school of the College probably give as good an education as the fees they charge make it possible to supply; and merchants must be prepared to find instances of ignorance and stupidity among boys who have paid 4*l.* per annum, and been taught by persons receiving from 50*l.* to 80*l.* Looking to the remuneration of educated capacity in other occupations, I doubt whether the Institute can hope to have all its teachers efficient till it is prepared to offer even to the youngest among them a minimum salary of 100*l.* or 120*l.*, with a prospect of increase. At the same time there is reason to think that some changes in the organization, as well of the Institute as of the College, might do something to meet what is confessedly their defect—the frequent feebleness of those who teach the younger and humbler boys.

Defects of the College and Institute; incompetence of the lower teachers.

Some few merchants gave expression to a set of complaints so different as to require a special notice. They accused not so much the existing schools as the public opinion which governs the schools. The education which a boy intended for business now receives is, said they, far too narrow and superficial, and school ought to do much for the general training of a boy's faculties, which the parent does not seem to desire, nor the schoolmaster to attempt. This involves the vexed question, on which practical

Views expressed re ing the value of thorough mental discipline and culture for business.

* *Supra*, p. 680.

† Not even by that remedy in which so many private schoolmasters seem to put faith, the provision of training colleges (similar to those under Government) for persons of a class socially superior to National school masters.

men are themselves so much divided, of the value of education for business, that is to say, of the possible practical utility in commerce of general mental cultivation and of intellectual habits and interests. The common view is well known. It denies such value altogether. The youth who comes into an office ought, says the average commercial man, to be punctual, attentive, submissive, to copy carefully, add up figures correctly, be smart in running messages, never forget to post letters in time, and keep a pretty sharp look out on all that he sees going on. What use is it to him to know the properties of triangles, or when *qui* should be followed by the subjunctive mood? Literary or scientific tastes render the drudgery of business far more irksome to him, may even make him dreamy and languid, not alive to passing things.

On the other hand, the merchants whose views I am attempting to report argued thus:—"If the operations of business are intel- "lectual operations at all, a mind ought to perform them the better "for being trained and strengthened. To be accustomed to trace "the working of principles, to follow processes of argument, and be "able to assign a reason for one's conclusions; to form an induction "from the past state of trade which may be made the basis of a pre- "diction respecting its state six months hence; to have the power of "organizing, and classifying, and subordinating details to prin- "ciples—all these are mental aptitudes of the highest value for prac- "tical success, and such as a good education may foster, strengthen, "and direct. It is the want of them," they continued, "that makes it "unsafe for us to trust anything requiring judgment to our clerks, "and that makes so many men who have been good, useful clerks, "fail utterly when they become principals, and are called on to "direct an extensive business. Moreover, it is through the want of "education that so many young men make shipwreck of health, for- "tune, and character. Having left school at 14 or 15 without any "intellectual tastes or interests, and finding themselves without "occupation for their evening leisure—very often strangers in "Liverpool, and so with little or no society, they take to question- "able amusements, become involved in debt, and end by losing "their situation, or, perhaps, by decamping with their employer's "money."*

Estimate of these views.

There is, perhaps, less contradiction between these opposite views than would at first sight appear. The qualities needed to make a good clerk and a good head of a business seem to be as different as those of an able seaman from those of a first-lieutenant, or a first-lieutenant's from an admiral's. The more active and ingenious, the more orderly and comprehensive a man's mind is, so much the better for him when he gets to the top of the tree. But it is not so certain that these are the powers which will enable him to climb there. The element of chance counts for a great deal in business, and nowhere have so many fortunes been made by mere random

* A remarkable case of this kind happened at the time of my visit to Liverpool, and my informants in referring to it expressed their surprise that, considering how young men were left unguided and unaided in Liverpool, such public scandals were not more common. They added that they are really more common than is supposed, many being hushed up for the sake of relatives.

speculation as in Liverpool during the last few years. The quality which is by far the most frequent source of mercantile success is a sort of half unconscious practical insight—unable to render reasons for its conclusions, and developed only by the constant practice of business, or, as Liverpool people would say, 'on the flags.'* To the formation of such insight a philosophical and ratiocinative habit of mind does not contribute, it may even mislead and destroy it. Moreover, a young man coming to business with tastes and aspirations above office work is apt to be irked by the tedious and mechanical nature of the duties which are at first imposed on him. Cases were mentioned to me in which parents, having kept their sons at public schools till 18 or 19, or at the university till 21, had then brought them home and placed them in the office. This position, which would have been welcomed at 15 as an emancipation from school restraints, was at the more advanced age dull and disagreeable, and the young men either abandoned business in disgust, or continued for a long time to do the work of the office in a perfunctory manner. Besides this, the system of apprenticeship, which still prevails to a considerable extent, throws difficulties in the way of a change. Boys are commonly taken as apprentices for five years, from 15 to 20. The employer objects to a shorter time on the ground that the boy is of so little use for the first two or three years that he ought to have some profit from his labour during the latter two or three. Yet the apprenticeship cannot commence later than it does now, for it is held that at 20 or 21 a man should be his own master. The rule in all these offices is that the last comer takes the rough work; he must lock up the premises, go on messages, see to the posting of letters. A young man of 18 or 20 is not willing to go through this, and to find himself placed under the orders of persons who are probably his juniors, as well as his inferiors in education and refinement. Of course, if he does overcome his repugnance, and succeeds after a year or two in getting into the swing of the office, his wider knowledge and capacities make him in many ways more useful, and probably quicken his promotion. For it is partly owing, said my informants in Liverpool, to the meagre attainments and limited range of ideas in the clerks that the prospects of advancement for a clerk are now more slender than was the case 30 years ago; that clerkdom is becoming in Liverpool what it has become in London, a distinct social class, whose members are more marked off from and rise more rarely into the class of merchants.

The general conclusion on the matter seems to be, that it would be desirable, not only for the sake of the community at large, but for the sake of having business itself better conducted, if it became the practice for boys to enter offices at 17 or 18 instead of 15 or 16, that is to say, if the general education of a business man in Lancashire was as long as that of a professional man is in the south of England. Most parents of the commercial class could not afford to keep their sons at school so long, but, in Liverpool at least, many could, and it is only custom and the stress of competition for situations that prevents them from doing so. So long,

* *i.e.* of the Exchange.

however, as the value of education for money-getting is so distant, indirect, and problematical as it is at present held by public opinion to be, so long no sensible improvement need be looked for.

Measures that may be adopted for the Improvement of Education.

Measures needed for the improvement of education in Liverpool.

It is therefore of more practical consequence to ask—What are the specific measures which it seems necessary and possible to take for the extension and bettering of education in Liverpool? Looking at the defects described above, and comparing the provision which exists in Liverpool with that seen to exist in Manchester, they will appear to be three.

(1.) Extension of the existing system of public schools.

First.—The benefits of education in large and well-organized schools under public management, may be extended more widely by the foundation of one or more new schools similar (generally) to the Royal Institution, College, and Institute. The value of such education, the advantages of a large public institution over the private academy, need no further proof than that given already. But while the College and Institute are already full, and indeed of a size quite as great as is compatible with efficiency, there are parts of Liverpool which lie too far from them to be served by them. Thus, on the northern and north-eastern side of the town are several populous suburbs $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the College, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles from the Institute. Similarly towards the east and south-east, there are many streets and groups of houses running out into the country which are two miles or more from the College or the Institute, and even further from the Royal Institution.* In the former of these districts more particularly, it would be very desirable to establish a cheap school (fees 5*l.* or 6*l.* to 8*l.*) in which thorough commercial teaching should be the first object. Such a school, if well managed, might hope in five years time to have 400 pupils. In the eastern suburbs the need is perhaps less pressing, but if they continue to increase at their present rate it will soon be felt. In the extreme south-east, again, towards Aigburth and Garston, a school of a somewhat different character would seem to be called for. The dwellers in these regions are mostly wealthy, and many of them send their children to boarding schools at a distance, others to the public schools of the south of England. As it is generally agreed to be better that boys should not (if possible) leave home for such schools till 13 or 14, parents who mean their sons to go there eventually, desire in the first instance a day school in the neighbourhood, where a good classical and general instruction may be obtained, sufficient to enable a boy to take a respectable place when he enters Harrow or Rugby at 14. Others, too, who intend their boys for the Royal Institution, or the upper school of the College, think that until they reach the age of 13 or 14 they ought not to be sent three or four miles by omnibus or train. There is therefore a fair prospect of success for a classical school

* In the case of the northern suburbs, it is unnecessary to mention the Royal Institution, since the inhabitants of those districts are for the most part likely to need and use a cheaper school than it is. The lines upon which the omnibuses run make the Royal Institution more generally available for people living in the south-eastern suburbs than either of the two other schools.

under public management, somewhere in the great south-eastern suburb.

It is not necessary to enter into any details respecting the precise educational character of the schools which appear to be needed in Liverpool, since each must be suited to the nature of the population in the district where it is to be planted. Nor need the constitution of such a school be discussed, for this will depend upon the persons who may undertake to found and start it. But there can be no doubt that it would be more likely to succeed, and more certain to benefit all classes, if it were founded on an undenominational basis. Both the College and the Institute have probably suffered more than they have gained by being considered to be identified with political parties.

(2.) Possible changes in the organization of the existing public schools.

Secondly.—The usefulness of the College and the Institute might, there is reason to believe, be increased by certain changes in their organization. The chief defect in both is the inferiority of some of the lower teachers. The simplest way of meeting this would be to attach larger salaries to the posts now filled by these men, so that better men might be got. This would involve, in the case of the College, a slightly higher scale of fees; in the case of the Institute, whose salaries are lower, both higher fees and the expenditure of a larger part of the school income upon the payment of the masters.* Such changes might possibly diminish the numbers of the boys who attend, and it may be held that the first business of such institutions is to provide for the poorer people;† but without any change either in the number or the payment of the teachers, a certain improvement might be effected by carrying further the already partially recognized system of departments and the division of labour.‡ As things stand now there are in the upper and middle schools of the College and in both schools of the Institute, some two or three masters only who are set apart to teach one subject; the great majority teaching several, however little natural connexion there may be between them. If instead of this system the school were divided into a certain number of departments—some five or six, or more—one for arithmetic and mathematics; one for classics; one, perhaps, for natural science; one for history and geography; one for English grammar and composition; one for modern languages;

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* A considerable part of the income of the school department is devoted to the support of the institution as a whole.

† There is reason to believe, however, that $\frac{12}{20}$ths of the parents who now pay 4*l.* per annum in the commercial school of the Institute would be both able and willing to pay 5*l.* or 6*l.* In fact persons of the same class do pay 5*l.* 5*s.* in the lower school of the College.

‡ I make this suggestion with diffidence, finding that some teachers of eminence think that the gain from better teaching would not compensate for the loss of the hold over each boy which the present plan of making him responsible for all his lessons to one master ensures. Having known of cases, however, in which the proposed system was notably successful, I cannot but think it worth while to call your attention to the matter.

There is to some extent a departmental system already existing in the Institute schools; but it does not seem to be arranged in the best way, and the smallness of the salaries offered to the teachers does not give it a fair chance of showing the advantages it possesses.

one for drawing; one for writing;*—and each department were placed under the charge of a master selected as well for special fitness as for his general ability, the other masters being distributed into these departments (also according to special fitness), and placed under the direction of the head of their department, the tone of the whole teaching might be expected to rise. The head of each department would make it his business to set his assistants in the right path and keep them in it, so that he would virtually teach through them. He would be held responsible for the performances of all boys in that subject, and, being publicly credited with their proficiency, would have a better status than at present, as well as a stronger motive for exertion. It would be his duty not merely now and then to examine the younger boys taught by assistants, as the head masters of these great schools do now, but occasionally to teach them himself, and give to them those explanations (*e.g.* of each rule in arithmetic as they are introduced to it, of the meaning of the terms used in mathematical geography, scarcely ever understood even by clever boys,) which cannot safely be trusted to an assistant. Such a plan, while it economized teaching power and set each man to teach what he knew best, would give a unity and definiteness to the teaching of each subject which is now wanting. It would be the business of the head master, who presides over all, to see that the departments worked harmoniously together.†

(3.) Provision of instruction in the higher subjects for persons who have left school.

Thirdly.—The most important, perhaps the only important point in which Liverpool appears to be educationally worse off than Manchester, is in the want of any institution to fill the place which Owens College holds in the latter city. It is true that there is an establishment called Queen's College, Liverpool, which claims to hold the same place, being affiliated to the University of London, and having among its professors several men eminently competent for their posts. But Queen's College has been hitherto a failure; owing partly, I was told, to the little sympathy felt in Liverpool for such an organ of the higher studies, partly to its association with the Institute, which was originally a mechanics' institute, and which, as being wholly secular, and managed by persons belonging to one political party, has incurred the hostility of those who belong to the opposite party, partly to the want of an endowment to give it a start and a name in the world. Anyhow it is a failure, and it seems likely to be so while it remains a mere branch of the Institute.‡ It has now professors teaching (in the day classes)

* I purposely make these different from the arrangement suggested in p. 726, because the exact distribution of the subjects is not of the essence of the plan. Objections may be taken to every distribution, nor would it be easy to say which can be shown to be the best.

† This would imply some change in the present organization of the College by three separate schools. I have already said that it would seem to be much better to detach the lower school from the rest of the College, and have it on a separate site, though not necessarily removed from the supremacy of the head master, and of course still under the same governing body. At present the social distinction of the richer and poorer boys is unpleasantly and needlessly obtruded. Whether it would be wise or expedient to unite the upper and middle schools is another question. Many of my informants in Liverpool condemned the present separation, but thought that public opinion would continue to demand it.

‡ The evening classes at Queen's College are well attended; and, so far as they are concerned, the institution has done and continues to do useful work.

classics, mathematics, chemistry, natural philosophy, English literature, history, and French. In the day classes there are eight students, in the evening classes 174 ; and of these only one or two are matriculated members of the London University. So feeble a support accorded to the only attempt hitherto made to provide for the higher teaching in Liverpool is disheartening enough; nevertheless it may be well to state in what points the need of an institution giving such teaching is now felt.

An institution other than a school is wanted, in which persons who can continue their education beyond 16 may receive instruction. Some boys profit more under the freer system of a college and the stimulating influence of lectures by able men than they did or would have continued to do under the discipline and in the monotonous atmosphere of school. Many who would have gained little from a continued school course of classics and mathematics are interested and benefited by the study of history, of natural science, of logic, and mental philosophy, which schools do not usually teach, or teach perfunctorily. In a huge town like Liverpool there are always a number of nondescript people, chiefly, of course, persons under middle age, pursuing their studies by themselves, and anxious to obtain any help they can from the oral teaching of accomplished men. These two classes of persons would probably provide a sufficient number of students for the day classes of a college which should be able to present a better face to the world and make itself better known than Queen's College has hitherto been able to do.

Remembering the complaints made of the meagre education of so many of the younger business men, I inquired whether there were any grounds for hoping that some of them could take an hour or two daily from office work to attend the classes of such an institution. My informants agreed in holding this out of the question, as far as day classes are concerned. The stress and strain of work is too great in Liverpool for a clerk ever to be spared: a great deal of business is now done, not by letters sent off in the evening, but by telegrams, which arrive and have to be answered at all hours of the day. But to evening classes the same objection does not apply. The hours of labour are now shorter than they were twenty or thirty years ago ; many young men do attend the evening classes of the College and the Institute for the sake of repairing defects in the more essential parts of their education ; and it may therefore be expected that a number, not large at first, but certain to increase, would gladly resort to lectures given by men of eminence on the higher branches of literature and science — lectures which, though they could not give that thorough discipline which is only possible through catechizing and examination, would yet serve to inform their minds, to give them tastes and interests above their work, to direct and aid such studies as they may have leisure to pursue for themselves. Those persons who desired to see such lectures attempted thought that they might advantageously be connected with an institution combining to some extent the functions

Desire for evening classes in the higher subjects : their probable utility.

of a club with those of a place of study. There are, they said, an immense number of young men in Liverpool who come from other parts of the United Kingdom, and live alone in lodgings; they have now no means of recreation except theatres and music-halls; and no opportunity of procuring any books and periodicals other than those ephemeral ones which the circulating library supplies. "It would be a great boon to the mercantile class," said they, "and to the whole town, to provide some place where these "young men might be encouraged to spend their evenings in a "quiet simple way; it would be a much more considerable one to "furnish in such a place, through books and lectures, the means "of intellectual culture." Important as this matter was held to be by several of the merchants and others with whom I had the opportunity of conversing, its discussion would involve a digression for which there is no space here. I will, therefore, merely state to you, in conclusion, the general results at which I was able to arrive respecting the educational state of Liverpool. Excluding the boys sent from home to boarding schools, and those taught in Privy Council schools, about one-half of the boys above the rank of labourers are educated in the three public schools, and one-half in private adventure schools. The private schools are used chiefly by the lower middle class, who leave them at 14 or 15; they are apparently superior to those in other parts of Lancashire, yet on the whole inefficient, since their teaching wants thoroughness, spirit, and intelligence. The three public schools provide for and are used by all sections of the middle and upper class. They supply an instruction sufficiently comprehensive, and in the main sound and good; they supply it at prices which, considering the absence of endowments, are at least as low as is compatible with their efficiency.

General results arrived at respecting education in Liverpool.

So far as the defects discoverable in them can be charged upon their own arrangements, they are chiefly due to the attempt made in their lower departments to give education cheaper than it can be given, that is to say, to give it by means of under-paid teachers.* But these defects, as well as those of the private schools, must, after all, be chiefly ascribed to those general causes which depress schools everywhere—to the early age at which boys are sent to business, to the neglect of parents to co-operate with schoolmasters, to the slight attention bestowed upon children in those years—from 5 to 10—in which their minds receive a set, to the attempt to teach too many subjects at once, to the want of competent masters. Until the great bulk of assistant teachers are abler men than they are now, better educated, better trained for their special work; until they understand that it is their business not merely to carry a boy through a variety of subjects and put into him a number of facts and rules, but to give him, so far as they can, flexibility of

* So far as I could judge, it seemed to me that the example of the Institute does not encourage the hope that schools charging fees so low as its fees are now, can be made to pay any dividend to proprietors. If such a school has its buildings rent free and spends the whole of its income in the payment of its masters, it does quite as much as can be expected from it.

mind and refinement of mind, institutions even so great and so prosperous as are the College and the Institute of Liverpool must fail to do for their scholars much which every one admits to be desirable, and which the example of other countries proves to be attainable.

IV.—The Manufacturing District.

The south-eastern quarter of Lancashire, bordering upon Cheshire southwards and Yorkshire eastwards, is a district to which it would be hard to find anything comparable in England, or indeed in Europe. Within a circumference of some 90 miles it contains nine towns with a population exceeding 30,000 and 16 others with a population of more than 6,000 each, towns which have mostly sprung into greatness within the last thirty or forty years, and which continue to increase at a rate as rapid as ever. The total population of the district may be roughly estimated at 1,200,000, excluding Manchester and Salford; its area at 500 square miles, giving something like 2,400 persons to the square mile. Even these figures, however, give but a faint idea of its aspect to the traveller. From Burnley to Warrington, from Wigan to Stalybridge, it is one huge congeries of villages, thickening ever and anon into towns, but seldom thinning out into anything that can be called country. Between Bury and Bacup, for instance, or between Rochdale and Ashton-under-Lyne, the line of railway is almost everywhere fringed with factories and houses, thickest along the banks of the larger streams, but also climbing the slopes of the great bleak moors that hang over the smoky valleys, and only stopping where cultivation itself stops—at the edge of the heathery domain of the grouse.

Rapid change in the character of this region.

A century ago these districts were among the wildest, as they are still among the rudest, in England. The valley of Rossendale, for instance, now one of the most populous parts of East Lancashire, was in quite recent times what it still continues to be called, a forest,* and all the neighbouring dales round Rochdale, Todmorden, and Burnley were very thinly inhabited, and almost wholly cut off from the outer world, speaking a dialect unintelligible to their neighbours of the lowlands. The speed with which this region has increased in wealth and population finds no parallel except in America or Australia, and the phenomena which have accompanied its growth are exactly those which are observed at this moment in some of our newest colonies. Towns have risen so fast as hardly to have yet become conscious of their own existence: they are straggling and irregularly built, handsome piles intermixed with hovels, public buildings extemporised in odd corners, big rambling shops in which, as in a backwoods store, everything is sold, from silks and notepaper at one counter to herrings and potatoes at the other. They are, in short, overgrown villages of 60,000 or 70,000 people. So too, as in a colony, society is in an unsettled and fluctuating

Social phenomena therefrom resulting.

* Before the Reformation it was the hunting ground of the abbots of Whalley. The Rossendale people maintain that within the last 100 or 150 years it was a forest, not merely in the sense of being wild and unenclosed land, but as actually covered with wood.

state. Men almost, sometimes wholly, illiterate, have risen to prodigious wealth, and indulge in a profuse luxury which strongly contrasts with the primitive simplicity of their own manners. A millionaire has cousins or even brothers among the operatives, and is often socially on a level with his own workpeople, to whose class he belonged a year or two before. Of course it is the ambition of everyone else to tread in his steps. The man who has saved a little money, sometimes a shopkeeper, sometimes a pushing mechanic, throws it into machinery, hiring 'space and power' (as they call it), or raising a weaving shed of his own. If the venture succeeds, he extends his operations and makes his fortune; if it fails, he emigrates or goes back to the big mill to earn his weekly wages. As men shift from trade to trade, so they are always moving from place to place, constantly running up from their homes to Manchester or Liverpool, passing into Yorkshire, and going, it may be once a fortnight or oftener, all the way to London on some business errand. Life passes in a perpetual hurry and bustle; things are done in a rough and ready fashion, which serves well enough the pressing needs of the moment and ignores everything beyond it; trade, or in other words wealth, is the only thing that anyone cares for or allows himself time to think of; and thus, although the country as a whole makes wonderful material advances, the life of the individual is not necessarily any more pleasurable or refined.

The artizans, being here far more numerous in proportion to the whole population than in most other parts of England, receiving good wages, trained by frequent struggles with the millowners to know and use their strength, and in some places raised by the extension of the co-operative system into a position of comparative independence, are, as compared with the rural population, a bold and free-spirited race, ambitious of rising, and often with a considerable desire for knowledge and self-improvement. It is a consequence of the whole social state of these towns, with their broad and striking contrasts of wealth and poverty and their active local life, as well as a relic of the excitement of the free trade struggle twenty-five years ago, that political feeling runs very high—the balance oscillating quickly between the two parties—and that it sometimes degenerates into the mere spirit of faction, which converts things indifferent into grounds of quarrel. Here, too, as in other matters, one may trace the likeness of a colony, in which there is the same excitability, the same overflowing energy, the same rudeness and almost contemptuous indifference to anything whose value cannot be directly expressed in money, or at any rate in power.

Education.

The educational phenomena of a district are the reflection of its social and economical condition; it is not difficult, therefore, to understand the character of the schools in these towns, and the causes of their defects. As the great stay of life is manufacturing industry, a proportion of the people far larger than in most parts of the South of England is engaged in manual labour, or composed of persons socially on a level with the manual labour class. What is called the middle class is but small, there being few professional men, since neither a doctor's nor a lawyer's practice is lucrative in such places, and few rich shopkeepers, since all the

better people do their shopping in Manchester or Liverpool, buying nothing but groceries and such like in the local store. Hence the education of the vast bulk of the inhabitants is conducted in the Privy Council, or, as they are commonly called, the public schools. Nor is it only by the children of the poor that these schools are used, but also to a very large extent by those of what would elsewhere be accounted a socially superior class, the shopkeepers, the publicans, the foremen and overlookers in the mills, nay even the manufacturers themselves. This is a natural consequence of the singular social mixture which has been described above. These richer people, having begun life as working men, and still preserving in their prosperity their old habits and ideas, have not, and can hardly be expected to have, any delicacy as to availing themselves of the eleemosynary education which the State provides for them. They have not yet begun to think of being select, they don't care about the roughness which is inseparable from such a school in such a district; and thus it happens that one constantly finds the sons and daughters of men who could pay 10*l.* or 16*l.* a year for schooling and never feel it, going to the National or British, or Wesleyan schools, and there paying 3*d.* or at most 6*d.* or 9*d.* per week. I remember to have heard of a case in which a manufacturer, a self-made man, had died suddenly, leaving an only daughter heiress of 50,000*l.* An acquaintance suggested to the child's mother that she ought to see that her education was attended to, as she might hope to marry well; the mother answered, "Why she goes to t'naytional school."

Causes of its depressed state.

It is to the operation of these causes that the fewness of as well as the scanty attendance at schools of superior instruction, a phenomenon at first sight very surprising, is to be traced. Others not less plainly connected with the social peculiarities of the district may account for their defects. There is a want of leisure, a want of culture, a want of interest in literature or science or anything that is not practical, which throws educational matters altogether into the background. Men who began life with little or no education, and who have been busied ever since in making money, cannot be expected to value knowledge highly, to care much for schools, or encourage good teachers. They seldom even know what good teaching is, and are content if their boy can add up quickly and writes a clear bold hand. One hardly knows how to describe the state of things, except by saying that the whole atmosphere of the place is unfavourable to education. The father works late and early, is very little at home, and never reads anything but a newspaper. The boy begins after 12 or 13 to look forward to the time of his emancipation from school, when he too shall be independent, and begin the great work of money making. Education, he sees plainly enough from the success of uneducated men, has little to do with wealth; his father cares nothing about it, and why then should he? Parents are in such haste to be rich, and to set their children in the way of becoming so, that they take them from school and send them into the works or put them to an office at 13 or 14, each fearing lest the sons of others should distance his own in the race. In such circumstances the schoolmaster has really no chance. All

things are in a state of flux, and so in its way is the school also. It often happens that from sheer carelessness a boy does not go to school at all till he is 10 or 11, or is transferred at 12 from a Privy Council school to a private teacher, who is expected to turn him out finished in eighteen months time, which is as though one were to expect a backwoodsman to cut down the forest trees, and drain the land, fence it, plough, and sow, and harrow, and raise a crop, all in one season. Hence the schools, that is, the private schools, themselves change. Some enterprising man, often a certificated master, starts an academy in a thriving town; he fills it after two years' work, and begins to gain some experience and influence; then he hears of an opening elsewhere, or uses his skill in accounts to get a business partnership, the academy disappears, and the town relapses into its previous state. There is everywhere such a demand for labour—intelligent as well as manual labour—and so many tempting chances of wealth flitting before the eyes of an ambitious man, that few persons of spirit and energy embrace, or, if they have embraced, remain in so discouraging a profession. In it they can never have more than a competence; all around them they see men inferior to themselves in knowledge and manners rising into wealth and power. They forget the failures, and play high for the chance of success. Thus the quality of teachers is lowered; and seeing the causes that are at work, one rather feels inclined to wonder that there should be so many men of vigour in the profession than that there should not be more.

The bitterness of party spirit which has already been noted may seem to have little to do with education, yet indirectly it has an effect and an injurious one. It is, of course, keenest in religious matters, and it tends to prevent men from combining publicly to do anything to improve a state of things which so many of them deplore. Inquiring in one great town whether it would not be possible to get people to unite to set up a good public day school where it was sadly wanted, I was told that if Church of England people took it up dissenters would not send their sons, and if dissenters took it up Anglicans would stand aloof. No one thought it possible that both should work harmoniously together for an object in which both were equally interested.

Social repulsion of the richer from the poorer middle class.

I have spoken of the social mixture—of the spectacle, singular in our country, of people who belong to the same class socially, while in wealth they differ very greatly from one another. There is also a social separation not less striking. While a man is still making his fortune, he often continues to live simply, indeed roughly, in a three-roomed house, to associate on equal terms with his workpeople, and send his children to the national school, or others little better. But when his fortune is made, when his income begins to exceed a thousand or two per annum, he suddenly expands from the chrysalis into the butterfly, turns away from the class out of which he has risen, and strives to attach himself to that composed of the older manufacturing families, or, if it be possible, even to the landed gentry. The first step to this is to send his children away from home to a boarding school, nominally to get rid of the dialect, but really to get rid of their cousins, to

form genteel connexions, and acquire manners more polished than those of home. The older manufacturing families are themselves not wholly exempt from similar feelings. They have an almost exaggerated horror of the roughness of Lancashire people; they are anxious that their sons should make no acquaintances among their social inferiors in their own town; they fear that he may learn vulgar phrases at school, and that his health may suffer in the smoke of a town; they usually live some two or three miles out, and don't like him to walk in so far. Thus this social severance of rich and poor has an injurious effect on these schools; for it destroys the interest which the richer and better educated inhabitants might otherwise have been expected to take in them. Setting these three facts together—the smallness of the so-called middle class as compared with the whole population of the manufacturing towns, the use made by its lower section of the Government schools, and by its upper section of boarding schools at a distance—it will at once be seen that the number of children to be looked for in the schools which are the subject of your inquiry in this district is, after all, not so very great, perhaps not greater than 10,000 or 11,000.* They are the children of persons who belong, in point of social rank, if not of income, rather to the lower than to the higher section of the middle class. They are almost all destined for a business life; and the education which is desired for them by their parents is therefore a short one and a practical one—words which, as has been remarked already, denote in substance an education narrow in its range and illiberal in its tone. The question which follows is, What provision now exists for giving this education?

Provision for education made by existing schools.

It will easily be perceived from what has just been said that it is not in these towns that we are to look for any of those new foundation schools which have of late years arisen in such large numbers in some parts of England. Nothing has been done for education here,† except what the liberality of founders did some two centuries ago, and what the commercial instinct of the present day may do. In other words, there are but two sets of institutions in which teaching is provided—the old grammar schools and the cheap private adventure schools.

Having already described each of these two classes of schools, it is unnecessary to do more here than briefly show what is the place they fill in the education of the manufacturing district.

The grammar schools.

Although it is only within this century that the Lancashire towns have grown so great, it happens, curiously enough, that most of them are old places—formerly almost the only civilized places in a wild and thinly-peopled country. Some of them, Preston, for instance, and Wigan, Bury, Bolton, and Clitheroe, bear names that carry us far back in the history of England—names famous in the great civil war, or in the records of still earlier times. In one or two of them the old church and the two or three quaint old houses that have survived from those

* Taking the whole population of the manufacturing region at 1,200,000, and the proportion of children of school age above the rank of labourers at 9 in every 1,000 of the people, we have only 10,800.

† There is a sort of proprietary school at Bolton, which has grown out of a literary institution.

times contrast strangely with the factories and bran new shops, and long, unlovely streets of grimy brick, that have arisen all around them. These older towns have all their grammar school; indeed none of the larger places want one except Ashton-under-Lyne. The towns of the second class, on the other hand, are mostly places that have shot up suddenly within the last thirty years, and have seldom a foundation school. Such are Accrington, Todmorden, Haslingden, Bacup, Ramsbottom, St. Helen's, Oyer Darwen.*

Within the bounds of the manufacturing district, strictly so called, there are 15 endowed schools,† and among these schools, however diverse in wealth and in efficiency, there is, as regards educational character, a considerable general resemblance. They are old schools, for the most part with gloomy old buildings and often old-fashioned in their organization and in the school books they use.

Their curriculum of

The centre or basis of their curriculum is usually Latin, which has been clung to as a sort of palladium. But it seldom goes far, not far enough for more than a tenth of the scholars to construe Virgil with the aid of a dictionary. Greek is well taught in Preston, Bury, and Warrington, though to but few boys; in the other schools it is a mere name. Similarly there are but three or four in which French is handled to any good purpose, nor is the condition of mathematics much better. Of the boys in these 15 schools, about 22 per cent. are at this moment learning it, and of these not one-fourth will go beyond the second book of Euclid and the simple rules in algebra. What are called the English and commercial branches have of late years been recognized as an important, and, indeed, the most important part of the course of instruction, and recognized more readily and more completely than has been the case in the foundation schools of the west midland counties or of Wales. Nevertheless they are sometimes indifferently taught. Arithmetic does not always receive its due share of the head master's attention; it is apt to be treated in an unscientific, and therefore superficial, manner.‡ As for the other subjects, history and geography, writing, spelling, and so forth, they are everywhere taught, sometimes better, sometimes worse, but on the whole more thoroughly than in private schools. The total number of scholars in attendance in these 15 schools is about 880, and of these about 190 are above 14 years of age.§ The best school, it is evident, cannot make very much of pupils whom it receives ill prepared at 11, and sends into the world at or soon after 14; great

* Chorley, Leigh, and Farnworth (near Bolton), are exceptions, possessing each a small grammar school.

† Preston, Bury, Bolton, Blackburn, Wigan, Burnley, Rochdale, Oldham, Warrington, Leigh, Farnworth, Chorley, Newchurch, Middleton, Colne. I omit Stand, although locally within this district, as a school altogether peculiar. Chorley, as lying in the hundred of Leyland, which is chiefly agricultural, has already been spoken of (p. 700, *et seq.*); but as a manufacturing town it must be reckoned in here also.

‡ The grammar schools of Farnworth (near Bolton) and Bury are conspicuous exceptions to this remark.

§ I endeavoured to make these figures quite accurate, but the imperfection of the returns furnished by some schools, and the confused way in which others are drawn up, render it impossible to do so. The estimate above given is, however, founded on the returns. The extreme proportions are well shown by the cases of Preston, in which nearly one-third of the scholars are over 14, and Rochdale, where less than one-fifth are.

allowance must, therefore, be made for work done under such disadvantages. The general impression which I formed respecting the grammar schools was substantially very much this—that their state was not creditable to or worthy of the towns in which they stood, but that neither was it, considering their difficulties and their limited resources, discreditable to their teachers. Not more than three or four could be pronounced quite efficient, but not more than one or two were positively bad. The rest, although they could not offer incomes large enough to procure first-rate men, and although the teaching was, therefore, not of high quality, were doing their best to be useful in the neighbourhood, and were really serving it by maintaining a standard of education higher than that which parents form for themselves. Their general merits.

Private adventure schools may be found even in those towns where the grammar school thrives, such as Preston and Bury; while in others where it is under a cloud, or does not exist, such as Oldham, Accrington, or Bacup, they furnish, along with the National and British schools, all the education that is to be had. They are for the most part small, ranging from 30 to 60 boys; not more than two or three reach 100. Their social status is generally, though not always, lower than that of the grammar schools. They receive the children of a very few of the better class of artizans, of the shopkeepers, clerks, foremen, overlookers, and of the petty manufacturers—men who own a small weaving shed, or have gone so far as to take one floor of a mill. These children come from a Government school, or from some supposed teaching at home, at about 10 or 11 years of age, and leave at 13 or 14. Many stay only a year or two in the school: those who remain after 14 are, according to the returns made to your forms of inquiry, only about 15 per cent. of the whole number. Many of the schools, being small, are taught by the head master only; when he has assistants, they are usually young and inexperienced men, receiving very small salaries, from 10*l.* to 50*l.*, without board or lodging. Private schools.

For the sake of comparing the instruction of the endowed with that of the private schools, I subjoin a table showing the number of boys learning Latin, Greek, French, and mathematics, (α) in the 14 grammar schools of the district (*i.e.*, in all except Burnley, which has not made returns) and (β) in 14 private schools in the same district, these 14 including all the best schools that have made returns to the Forms of Inquiry. Nature of the instruction they supply.

ENDOWED GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

——	Preston.	Bury.	Warrington.	Bolton.	Wigan.	Blackburn.	Rochdale.	Oldham.	Farnworth.	Leigh.	Newchurch.	Chorley.	Colne.	Middleton.	Totals.
Total No. of boys in the school.	110	121	55	67	68	90	40	37	31	59	40	28	33	37	816
No. learning Latin - -	92	89	55	50	31	70	20	–	30	14	18	6	11	34	520
No. learning Greek - -	22	15	15	9	17	9	5	–	20	1	6	–	–	9	128
No. learning French - -	55	63	38	16	29	8	8	–	20	7	–	–	5	–	249
No. learning Mathematics	30	24	21	14	–	21	10	–	20	13	6	11	9	12	191

PRIVATE SCHOOLS.

—	In Wigan.	In Rochdale.	In Blackburn.	In Preston.	In Accrington.	In Bolton.	In Ashton-under-Lyne.	In New Chorley.	In Blackburn.	In Leigh.	In Preston.	In Blackburn.	In Bury.	In Blackburn.	Totals.
Total No. in the school	50	65	48	60	140	80	53	36	25	48	40	46	30	60	781
No. learning Latin -	19	12	10	8	2	6	7	10	6	2	-	-	-	-	82
No. learning Greek -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
No. learning French -	6	-	10	12	1	10	6	13	4	4	-	-	-	12	78
No. learning Mathematics.	11	12	-	9	-	12	8	6	-	-	-	2	-	-	60

The education given is in many of the private schools purely elementary—reading, writing, and arithmetic, with a little grammar, and perhaps geography. In other schools, history, and possibly the elements of drawing or book-keeping, are added; in a very few, not more than 10 or 11 out of the whole number in these towns, Latin, mathematics, and French. Greek is not attempted, nor German, nor Euclid beyond the second book.* In short these schools are, as respects the instruction which they give, little superior to Government schools, and, as respects the rooms in which they give it, very much inferior. I found among them some four or five where the head master was a man of vigour and talent, or of that energy and zeal in his profession which sometimes stands in place of talent; and in these cases the elementary teaching was sound, while efforts were made to extend its range, so as to take in the higher subjects. There were, perhaps, as many more passably educated, painstaking men, who were doing the best they could to teach the commercial subjects in a straightforward, practical way. In some of the remaining instances the schoolmaster's knowledge was plainly deficient; in others he was indolent; in others he appeared simply to accept the position wherein he found himself without trying to improve it, and taught writing and arithmetic in a plodding manner, with the aid of pitiful assistants. On the whole, there was less of flagrant incompetence than I had been led to expect, and the conclusion forced itself upon me that although the schoolmasters are far from being equal to their work, the low state of education is to be charged much more upon the economical and social condition of the district than upon the schoolmasters. It is not safe for a man to start a school on a large scale, nor is there any encouragement to give good teaching and introduce the higher subjects, since parents do not desire (and, therefore, will not pay for) the latter, while respecting the quality of the teaching they can form no judgment. In one of the largest manufacturing towns I saw, on the same day, two private schoolmasters. The one was a pursy, noisy, self-conceited fellow, who,

Difficulties under which they labour.

* In both the grammar schools and the private schools the real state of instruction is much lower than would appear from the tables, for I frequently found that the boys who are returned as learning Latin, or geometry, or French, had gone so short a way in these subjects, as to have derived no profit from them. This is especially the case with the French and Latin of the private schools.

by dint of his loud and constant puffery, had got together a school of more than 120 boys and girls, and was making a good income out of the easily deluded tradespeople. The other was a sensible and apparently well-educated man, teaching some 30 boys in the upper room of a small dwelling house, which was all he could afford to hire, and teaching them as rationally and thoroughly as it was possible for one man to do in the midst of a number of classes engaged on different subjects. His receipts were not large enough to let him hire an assistant, and he seemed so much disheartened by the success of the pretentious rival, whose arts he neither would nor could copy, that he may probably have by this time quitted the place in disgust. Moreover, the boys come to school absolutely untrained and ignorant; their parents are quite uneducated, and their home manners of the roughest; they stay so short a time that the best master can do little to soften and civilize, much less to instruct them.

It will be understood, then, that the inferiority of these private adventure schools to the grammar schools is not solely owing to the better teaching in the latter, but to the fact that their pupils usually come from a higher social class—a class which is two or three removes from barbarism, while that which fills the private schools is but one. The advantages of the endowed school are obvious. It is under the management of persons of influence, and so can command the confidence of the town; its master is a public functionary, and as such the social equal or superior of the parents of his scholars; its buildings, old and gloomy and dirty as they are, are better than the stifling little rooms into which the private schoolmaster is forced to crowd his scholars.

These things being so, it may cause surprise that the endowed schools are not themselves more prosperous. I give a table of the population of some of the more important towns, with the number of pupils now in attendance at the grammar schools.* These

—	Preston.	Bolton.	Oldham.	Blackburn.	Rochdale.	Bury.	Burnley.	Wigan.	Warrington.	Farnworth.
Population in 1861.	82,985	70,395	72,333	63,126	38,114	37,563	28,700	37,658	26,947	8,720
No. of Boys in Grammar Schools, 1864–65.	110	67	† 37 (?)	90	40	121	50 (?)	68	55	31

figures show how small a part of the population is educated even

* It is true that the proportion of persons of the middle class to the whole population is lower in these manufacturing towns than in such towns as Liverpool, or Shrewsbury, or Exeter. But the increase of population between 1861 and 1865, and the fact that the population within a three-mile radius is often much larger than the population given in the above table, may be taken as probably sufficient to compensate this cause of error.

† I found only 12 boys in the Oldham school, and do not believe that the attendance averages anything like 37.

in the efficient and prosperous grammar schools, like those of Preston and Bury, where one might have looked for 200 or 300 scholars. A grammar school does not seem to succeed, even where most favourably placed, in becoming the school of the town, in the same sense in which a public school is the town school in France, or Germany, or America. Different causes may be assigned for this in different places.

Why are the endowed schools not more prosperous?

(1.) Sometimes the fees are higher than the tradespeople, clerks, foremen, and better artizans (men receiving 1*l.* 10*s.* to 3*l.* per week) are now disposed to pay. They get an elementary education (which is all they now desire) in the Government school at from 10*s.* to 1*l.* 5*s.* per annum; or a poor commercial education at the private school for 2*l.* 10*s.* to 5*l.* per annum; and don't care to pay 10*l.* 10*s.* to 6*l.* 6*s.*, as at Preston (unless they are children of freemen and admitted on the foundation); 8*l.* 8*s.* to 4*l.* 4*s.*, as at Bury; 8*l.* 8*s.*, as at Rochdale; 8*l.* 8*s.* to 4*l.* 4*s.*, as at Warrington; 6*l.* 6*s.*, as at Blackburn.

(2.) There is a deeply rooted belief in the minds of the shopkeepers and mechanics that the grammar schools teach only classics, or at any rate neglect the commercial subjects. It is an erroneous belief, for, though some of the grammar schools do not give sufficient importance to arithmetic, writing, and English composition, several teach these subjects better, and nearly all teach them as well as do the private adventure (and professedly commercial) schools. I found this notion prevailing in Wigan, where the commercial teaching of the grammar school is fairly good, and classics are at a low ebb; in Blackburn and Rochdale, where classics are not enforced; and in other places too numerous to mention. It was a well-founded one twenty or thirty years ago, and in twenty or thirty years more it may perhaps disappear.

(3.) Theological and political jealousies have borne their share in injuring the grammar schools.* Party spirit, running very high in these new and excitable communities, has intruded itself into things which ought to have been most free from it—religion and education. The foundation schools have in most, though not in all, cases been held to be the exclusive property of the Church of England; their trustees have been taken solely from her members; the teaching of her dogmatic formularies has in some cases been made compulsory upon all the scholars. Hence nonconformists have looked with aversion or indifference on the grammar school, and have preferred to send their children to other places of education. I had evidence given me of the existence of this feeling at Farnworth, Wigan, Blackburn, Warrington, and Bolton,† and had reason to believe that it prevails in many other places.

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* As has been said already, this does not arise from any desire on the part of the laity for distinctive religious teaching, nor from any difficulty in receiving children of different persuasions in the same school, for it is universally admitted that such desire and such difficulty do not exist. It is due solely to that strong social and political antagonism of two parties which has made things indifferent a ground of quarrel.

† In the three former of these towns Church of England dogma is not enforced on persons objecting.

(4.) Besides these three causes, which have operated generally, there are several minor ones, into which it is unnecessary to go, that have told unfavourably in this or that particular school. In several cases I do not know to what to attribute the failure of the school except to mere neglect — a neglect sometimes arising from defects in the constitution of the foundation, sometimes from the accidental presence of a bad master, sometimes from the indifference of trustees. Thus Blackburn grammar school was altogether closed some years ago, the then head master refusing to teach anything but classics, and the trustees being unable to dismiss him.* Thus Middleton grammar school, having no local body to look after it, and a foundation too small to support more than one master, drags on a miserable existence, its battered old building scarcely keeping out the rain, its master teaching the elementary subjects to some 25 children, and scraps of Latin and mathematics to 10 or 12 more.† The town has 10,000 inhabitants, and the population all round it is dense.

An even lower point of wretchedness has been reached by the Oldham grammar school. In a gloomy and filthy room, in the worst part of this great and growing manufacturing town, I found a teacher, who had himself received a very scanty education, hearing twelve dirty and unkempt children, none of them over 10 years of age, read in an elementary lesson book. They read very badly, could not write down numbers on the slate, and proved, on examination, to be unable to do anything in arithmetic. For many years past no one had cared for the school, and thus it had been allowed to sink from the respectable position it had held twenty or thirty years before into a state which would have disgraced a hedge school in the remotest country district. No other grammar school is in a plight comparable to this; yet several, such as those of Bolton, Wigan, and Burnley, are far from prosperous, existing rather than living, teaching only some 50 or 60 scholars, in places where they ought to have 300.‡

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* It is now a fairly efficient school.

† Middleton returns itself as teaching Latin to nearly all the boys; but returns are often far from showing the true state of things.

‡ A great number of children of the middle class are educated, as has been stated in speaking of Manchester and Liverpool, in schools receiving Government aid. In some towns and villages they are the only places of instruction accessible, in others my informants declared that one half of the people who might have paid 4*l.* or even 6*l.* a year for what is called a commercial education preferred to pay 1*l.* for an elementary one. Under the provisions of the revised code the education is, it need hardly be said, practically confined to reading, writing, and arithmetic, since it is upon the performances of boys in the several 'standards' fixed in these subjects that the capitation grant is awarded. In a certain number of National schools, however, and still more in British and Wesleyan schools, the highest class is instructed in other subjects, history, geography, grammar, even (though rarely) Latin and the elements of mathematics. For this instruction they pay fees of from 6*d.* to 1*s.* a week, yet this does not prevent some masters from presenting them for examination by the inspector, and obtaining a grant upon them. To what extent this goes on it was of course impossible for me to discover, since the teachers and managers of schools often think it undesirable for the inspector's attention to be drawn to it. But I heard loud complaints from the private schoolmasters, who said that not only were boys drawn away from them in this manner, but the scale of their own fees kept down at an unremunerative point. It is rather hard, they think, to be exposed to be under bidden by the competition of men who pay no

Estimate of the State of Education generally.

Estimate of the educational state of these towns.

It may be well to recapitulate concisely the conclusions which I was able to form respecting the quantity and the value of the education provided in the two sets of institutions just described.

(1.) In several of the great towns there may be obtained at the grammar school a fair commercial education and a classical education, good so far as it goes, and sufficient to prepare a clever boy to enter the university, though hardly sufficient to give him a fair chance of distinction there.* Mathematics are at a low ebb.

(2.) In several of the smaller towns (10,000 to 20,000 or 30,000) the grammar school gives a sufficient commercial and an elementary classical education.

(3.) In most of the towns whose population exceeds 20,000 there may be found two or three private schools, one at least of which is probably conducted by an active man, who teaches the commercial subjects as well as one can expect them to be taught for fees so low.

(4.) In towns whose population falls short of 20,000 the private schools are generally very bad, or altogether wanting; and no educational provision, except that of Government schools, with here and there an uninspected denominational school, can be said to exist.

(5.) Throughout the whole district the education of what may be called the lower middle class is narrow in range and poor in quality. Not more than eight per cent. of them are in the 15 grammar schools of the district; and the rest do not stay long enough at the private or Privy Council school to get anything more than what may be called a single coat of educational paint.

Average education received by the boys in these towns.

The average boy, son of a grocer, or of a mill foreman with 180*l.* per annum, runs about the house and the streets till he is eight or nine, barely able to read and spell the easiest words. Then he goes to a National or British school for a year or two, learns to read and to work the elementary rules of arithmetic. At 11 or 12 he is placed in a private school, still raw as regards knowledge, and rude from mixing with the half-timers of the Government school. The private schoolmaster and his one assistant have 50 or 60 boys and girls† to deal with, not wanting in natural capacity, but coming from homes so roughly practical that all the ideas which he who teaches the children of the rich finds ready to his hand—everything in the shape of taste and literary interest—must be created in, or rather pitchforked into, their minds. Thus half the time which

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rent, and are maintained by the public for the purpose of educating the poor. Yet it seems neither possible nor desirable to forbid such an arrangement in places where there exists no other provision for education but that of the Government schools; and the imposition of proper restrictions might remove the dangers now complained of—the withdrawal of the master's attention from the poorer scholars and the undue cheapening of instruction for the richer.

* It will be understood that neither this nor the deficiency noted in mathematics, is necessarily due to any incompetence in the head master, but to the circumstances of the school.

† Throughout Lancashire girls and boys are to be found together in the schools, both endowed and private, used by the lower middle class.

ought to be spent in building is spent in laying foundations. The boy pursues his arithmetic and writing, begins English grammar and geography, is expected to pick up English history from his reading book, and Scripture history from the Bible, which often serves as an alternative reading-book. If he stays after 14 he is set to copy out into his show-book, hitherto filled with pieces of ornamental penmanship and sums revised by the master, some problems in mensuration, or entries meant to imitate those of a ledger,* which he may show to his father as a proof of his proficiency in book-keeping. But before he has reached 14 he has grown impatient of school, envying playmates who have been promoted to the independence of an office or an apprenticeship in trade; the father, who sees no use for any more knowledge than he possesses himself, gets a situation for him; and his education ends before he knows anything of decimals or compound proportion, anything more of grammar than the difference between a noun and a verb; anything in geography except the capitals of countries and the chief rivers of England; and anything of Scripture except what the Sunday school—if he went there—may have taught him. Of mental training and of culture I do not speak, for in such a hasty and scattered education thorough mental training is out of the question; and teachers think they do well if they make the lad tolerably fit for office work. This he seldom is; but being put at first into some place where there is not much writing or reckoning to do—where, in fact, it is chiefly important that he should be sharp and active, his defects are more easily pardoned than those of a youth entering a Liverpool office at 16 would be. In two or three years he picks up arithmetic enough to serve his turn, and such general knowledge as his own business may need; more he never has time to get, and seldom thinks of getting, although the want of it is through the rest of his life a weight to drag him down and prevent him from filling with dignity the position of wealth and influence to which he may not improbably rise.

Lifelessness of the schools.

The fault which strikes one most in the schools of the manufacturing district is their languor. I do not know whether they are so much worse than schools elsewhere, but the contrast of the school with the world without is certainly more forcible. Where all else is life and movement, where the whirr of machinery is heard from the factories that line the street, and the clang of hammers resounds from the foundries, and the shrill whistle of the engine and clatter of the train scarcely cease all day long upon the lines of railway that intersect this wonderful region—where restlessness, activity, ambition are painted on every face, in the school alone there is dulness, slowness, dawdling. From the strenuous life without, one passes into the schoolroom, and finds the grammar school boys lazily repeating the Latin accidence, or quoting from some old-fashioned grammar a rule which they don't dream of understanding; or (if the school be a private one) sitting in knots about the

* All the intelligent teachers I met with ridiculed this custom, but some of them were obliged to conform to it.

stifling room, trying to make their answers to a sum agree with the answers in the book, while the master hears others repeat off the columns of a spelling book as their ancestors may have done a century before. A Government school, however narrow the range of its teaching, is a far more pleasant sight, for there one finds at any rate motion and activity, a sense of something being done, and of an effort to get up to Standard V. or VI. Standard VI. may represent no great mental culture, but it is something to reach a standard of any kind.

Feelings of parents respecting the state of education.

Unsatisfactory as the state of education is, one hears fewer complaints about it than in Manchester—fewer even than in Liverpool, where the provision for instruction is far more ample. The cause is plain enough. Education has less practical value here than in those cities, for less of it is needed to start a boy in life, and it has no social value at all. Hence parents of the so-called middle class do not complain; some of them are uneducated, and know nothing of the matter; the rest are too busy ever to think of it. A different set of causes prevent the richer or more intelligent men from feeling and seeking to remedy the evil. Except in towns like Preston and Bury, where the grammar school is prosperous and respected, the wealthier manufacturers, and as many of the professional men as can afford to do so, send their sons to boarding schools at a distance. Some do this from dissatisfaction with the badness of the existing schools. Others desire to give their sons a higher social polish, and to enable them to form acquaintances of a superior rank, or at any rate to break them from those inferior ones which environ them at home. The boy goes to Harrow, or Cheltenham, or Southport, that he may escape from cousins who are earning 18*s.* a week in the factory. Others, again, especially of a class socially less elevated, are too busy to look after their children, and send them away merely to get rid of them and keep them from falling into mischief. It is in this way that the Yorkshire boarding schools, and schools like that described in p. 568 are stocked. Thus at Oldham I found that the sons of all the more respectable people (except a few who went daily by rail to Manchester) were away at boarding schools. At Rochdale, although there is a fairly good grammar school, the same thing happens, some people saying that the climate is too damp and the air too smoky for their children, others that the town boys are too rough. So in Bolton, Wigan, and Burnley, so in Ashton and Stalybridge, and all through the populous district of the forest of Rossendale. Although in the present circumstances of the manufacturing towns such a practice is unavoidable, its results are in many respects unfortunate. Where there is an endowed school it makes the trustees more remiss in their care of it, since they have no interest as parents. This is conspicuous in the cases of Oldham and, though the consequences have been less serious, of Bolton, Burnley, Blackburn, and Leigh. Where there are only private schools the principal inhabitants do not think of exerting themselves, either to improve the existing schools or get better ones established. They send their boys away because the schools are bad, and the schools are bad because they

send their boys away. For the schoolmaster, whether endowed or private, is placed in a much worse position when he has few or none of the children of the better classes entrusted to him; he is less respected by the poorer people, and must lower his teaching and his fees to suit their narrow views. Boarders he cannot hope to get in such a locality;* hence, if he is an ambitious, active man, he leaves the place, and starts a boarding school at Southport, or somewhere else on the seacoast. It is an evil for the whole upper class to be so completely cut off during the years of boyhood from the bulk of their fellow citizens. The chasm between rich and poor, between those who desire to be exclusively select and those who still sympathize with the mass of the working people, is already sufficiently wide, and seems in Lancashire to widen daily.

Plans suggested for the Improvement of Education.

Possible remedies for existing evils.

It remains to speak of the remedies that may be applied to the evils stated to exist. Some will be supplied by time itself, and by the progress of society to a more settled and civilized condition. These towns are this moment probably not unlike what Manchester and Leeds were forty years ago, and in forty years more will have ripened into something more like what Manchester and Leeds are now. One may distinguish different stages of civilization among them corresponding to their age. Bacup, Darwen, and Todmorden, for example, are far more rough and raw than Rochdale or Bolton; Rochdale and Bolton less refined than Preston. In another generation or two we can hardly doubt that many of the features which make the district so peculiar and so interesting now will have begun to disappear, and that the standard of school-teaching will rise along with that of knowledge and social polish.

Nor is it necessary to speak of such remedies as may benefit the private schools, if any such there be that can be applied by public authority. Whatever private schoolmasters may hope from scholastic registration, or a system of public examinations, or the training of teachers, they may hope elsewhere as well as here. It is only those special remedies which the circumstances of the district seem to call for, and which public action may be invoked to provide, that need be mentioned in this connexion. These are two—the re-organization and improvement of the existing grammar schools, and the foundation of new public schools in places where they are now wanting.

I. As regards the improvement of existing grammar schools.

Reorganization or reform of the grammar schools.

The chief points wherein the constitution, management, or organization of the endowed schools seems to need reform have already been described in speaking of schools of that class. The measures called for are of course not the same in every town. In Preston, for example, the grammar school is already prosperous; it is well managed by a public body, the town council, and gives a

* Boarders are taken in two or three of the more important endowed schools, and at Preston they are sufficiently numerous to make a considerable addition to the head-master's income. But Preston is by much the pleasantest of the manufacturing towns as a place of residence.

good classical and commercial education to about 100 boys, mostly of the so-called upper middle class. The object must therefore be to make it more accessible to the minor shopkeepers and mechanics, and this may be done either by permitting boys to enter who shall have a commercial education only, at the same time slightly lowering the fees; or by starting a branch school which shall be both cheaper and more distinctly commercial. There is a part of the town, or rather a northerly suburb, where such a school would be conspicuously useful; and it would succeed all the better for being formally connected with the grammar school, as a sort of preparatory department, superintended, if it were thought proper, by the grammar school-master, and placed under the general control and management of the town council.* In Bolton, on the other hand, the grammar school has got into low water, partly from neglect and partly from faults in its constitution. It has but two masters, and draws its scholars almost wholly from the poorer class of people. Considerable changes are needed to make it do what it ought to do for the town; the imposition of fees (making the places on the foundation prizes, instead of a useless bounty to sluggish parents, as they are now), the introduction of a vigorous teaching of the more practical subjects, the popularization of the board of trustees.† There are many other cases whose special circumstances it would take too long to describe, and with regard to which it may be enough to say that to make them adequate to the work before them more energy must be infused, sometimes into the governing body, sometimes into the teachers, sometimes into both. How to do this is of course the problem. The four measures which are generally admitted to be the most directly necessary, and the most likely to be generally serviceable in increasing the efficiency of foundation schools, are the following:—

Four measures that may be adopted to benefit the grammar schools.

1. The erection of better school-houses. Almost everywhere, but most conspicuously in Blackburn, Burnley, Leigh, Middleton, Newchurch, Bolton, and Oldham, new buildings are wanted to give the school a fair chance, not merely of maintaining its social credit, but of giving its teaching in a proper manner. Supposing the headship of any of these schools vacant, half the candidates who came down to make inquiries about it would turn away at the first sight of the schoolroom.

2. The reconstitution of governing bodies, so as to introduce everywhere a representative element, and to give the townspeople a more direct and lively interest in the welfare of the school.‡

3. The more distinct recognition of the commercial subjects, arithmetic, writing, and English composition, as being, not less than classics, an essential part of the schoolwork, to be taught with as much care and by teachers of equal relative competence. At present trustees and head masters often seem to think that any certificated master is good enough to teach the commercial subjects;

* There is reason to believe that town councils would in many cases be willing to make grants for the support of such schools.

† It has been proposed to unite the grammar school with a sort of proprietary school hard by, and probably this would be a benefit to both and to the public.

‡ *Vide supra*, p. 447–453.

and when the townspeople complain that these subjects are neglected, they talk of hiring such a master, as if by so doing they made all right for the future.* Whether a separate commercial department should or should not be established is a question which must depend on the circumstances of the particular school. But if there be one, it is evident that no lower standard, either social or intellectual, should be fixed for its master than for the other teachers of the school.† To teach arithmetic and mathematics in a thorough and scientific fashion is neither an easier nor a less important duty than to teach Latin, nor is it less worthy of a cultivated man.

4. A re-settlement of the rules respecting the benefits of the foundation in such a way as, without depriving the poor of any rights which they not only nominally possess but actually use, to raise from fees a revenue greater than the present, and thus tempt better masters by the prospect of larger incomes. The stipends of under-masters are now frequently insufficient, and are usually fixed, whereas it is evidently the interest of the school that they no less than the head master should share in the income from fees, and profit by every increase in the number of pupils.

In resettling the foundations it seems particularly desirable that something should be done to connect the Government (elementary) schools with the grammar schools, and to provide for the admission free or at a reduced rate to the grammar schools of the best boys from these elementary schools. Both sets of institutions would be equally benefited thereby.

II. Extension of the system of public (foundation) schools.

The limit of the district which any given school can serve as a day-school may be commonly determined by a three-mile radius from some central point. It is a consequence of the manner in which population is distributed over the manufacturing district, not merely gathered into large towns, but also dispersed, as it were, in a continuous village over the whole country, that it is sometimes hard to fix on particular centres, and say that there rather than elsewhere the population requires a school superior to the elementary. Nor do the census returns, being adapted to divisions which do not coincide with those which the increase of houses has shaped out for itself, give all the assistance in the matter which might be desired from them.

Places where superior schools are needed.

It may be well, however, to give a list of the towns in the manufacturing district whose population in 1861 exceeded, or has by this time approached near to, 10,000, and where there is at present no foundation grammar school:—

Town.	Population in 1861.	Town.	Population in 1861.
Accrington - -	13,872	Over Darwen - -	14,327
Ashton-under-Lyne -	34,886	St. Helen's - -	18,396
Bacup - - -	10,935	Stalybridge‡ - -	24,921
Haslingden - -	6,929	Todmorden - -	11,797
Heywood - -	12,824	Ramsbottom - -	8,000 (?)
Hindley - -	8,477		

* This sort of notion, it is fair to say, is more often to be found prevailing in Shropshire and Worcestershire than in Lancashire.

† This arrangement exists in Liverpool College, and has been found to work excellently there.

‡ The chief part of the borough of Stalybridge lies in Cheshire.

Besides these towns theres are several others, such as Padiham, Droylsden, Newton-in-Makerfield, whose population ranges from 6,000 to 7,000, and where there is at present no grammar school.

The average proportion which children of school age above the rank of labourers bear to the whole population of a given place has been stated, taking the whole of England, at 11 to 1,000. In these Lancashire towns it is doubtless lower, the great bulk of the people being engaged in manual labour. In Oldham, for instance, it may be only 8 to 1,000; in Over Darwen possibly lower. Even this proportion, however, would give from 50 to 150 children in the towns just enumerated, and it must not be forgotten that the high rate of wages in Lancashire would enable many working men to use schools charging 4*l.* 4*s.* per annum,* and offering a better education than that of the Government schools. There is, therefore, no reason to apprehend that a supply of scholars would be wanting in these places; certainly not if more stringent measures were taken to prevent well-to-do people from getting their children educated at the public expense in National and British schools.† Of the above towns, those in which it might be desirable first to try the experiment of founding public schools for a superior or commercial education are Ashton-under-Lyne, Accrington, and St. Helen's. If the experiment succeeded there, it would be easy to try it in the other places named.

Where is the money to come from?

It may be asked, how are funds to be procured for such an undertaking? Those who know Lancashire, know that it is no paradox to say that money is the thing which it is easiest to get there. All that is absolutely wanted for this enterprise is a sum to purchase sites and erect buildings. There is no reason why a school with these advantages should not be self-supporting, although any little endowment might give it a better chance at starting. If, therefore, it is found impossible to divert to this plainly useful purpose any existing charities which are known to be useless or pernicious, it would not be hard to raise by local subscriptions enough money—from 1,000*l.* to 3,000*l.*, according to the requirements of the town—to set the school a-going in well-ventilated rooms, for which it should pay no rent. The real difficulty is to find men who will take the trouble of collecting the money, organizing the establishment, and appointing the master.‡

In many Lancashire towns there are charitable funds which would, if applied to the establishment or the aid of grammar schools, confer a far greater benefit on the community, including the poor, than they now confer. Thus in Oldham, the miserable state of whose grammar school I have described, there is a charity school with a revenue of 2,213*l.* a year which is spent in clothing and feeding and giving a moderately good education to about 100 boys. Warrington Blue Coat school has an income of 1,000*l.* a

* The wages of a cotton operative vary from 18*s.* to 42*s.* a week, according to the nature of his work.

† They need not be excluded from these schools—there are indeed some advantages in their presence there—but they ought neither to receive a capitation grant nor be admitted at the present low fees, which are unjust to the private schoolmaster.

‡ The extreme difficulty which a local board of trustees finds in selecting a competent teacher from a number of candidates has already been commented on (p. 530).

year, and educates 40 children. Cheetham's hospital in Manchester has more than 3,000*l.* a year, and educated in 1864 only 100 boys. Then there are apprentice charities, like Kenyon's at Rochdale (where the grammar school is very poorly endowed) whose funds are accumulating for want of power to apply them in any but this, which has ceased to be a useful way. And, lastly, there are the numerous dole charities, which are almost always mischievous, and the almshouses, of which the best that can be said, according to the report given by those who have watched their working, is that they are sometimes harmless. The poor who now receive little or no benefit from all this money, would receive a great deal from the establishment of schools in which their children might obtain at low fees an education which would give them a chance of rising of the world.

Proper educational organization.

It is not necessary to inquire at length what should be the educational arrangements of such a school, for these will be best settled with reference to the wants of the neighbourhood. Evidently its first business would be to give thorough teaching in the commercial subjects—*i.e.*, arithmetic and writing, with English grammar and composition. Stress would, of course, be laid upon mathematics, and provision made for the teaching of Latin, French, and drawing, if possible for natural science also. But it might be found better to make none of these subjects compulsory. There seems reason to believe that those who desire to raise the standard of education sometimes err by insisting on teaching the higher subjects to all who enter their school. The usual result is to frighten away many parents whose sons, had they entered the school to take the commercial subjects, would probably have been drawn on to languages and mathematics, and would at any rate have learned even their arithmetic and English grammar far better than in the nasty little commercial academy in which they so often take refuge. After all, the great thing in education is, not to teach the boy this or that, but to get him under the hands of an able teacher.

Scale of fees.

As regards fees, I found people generally agreed that they should range from 4*l.* to 8*l.* per annum. More than 4*l.* or 5*l.* few mechanics or publicans and scarce any operatives would consent to pay; less than 8*l.* would not be a fair market price for instruction in languages or mathematics, as well as in the commercial subjects. Of course if an endowment could be procured there might be places in the foundation at even lower rates, or altogether free, to which the best boys of the Privy Council schools might aspire. As touching management, my informants were agreed that this must be public, and that to give the school a fair chance of success it must be undenominational. But they also agreed that it would be hard to get men of influence in this busy county to take interest in and bestow time upon the concerns of a school. And I could see that in some places they almost despaired of getting different parties religious and political, to unite even for an object of such acknowledged public utility. The laity, they said, might be willing enough, but the laity are so occupied with business, that in educational matters a good deal must depend on the attitude of the

clergy of all denominations, and they held it to be at least doubtful whether the clergy would combine.*

Proposal to erect a District Board of Education.

It was partly for this reason, the fear that local apathy or local dissensions might prove fatal to an enterprise which they thought so necessary, that some of those with whom I conversed suggested the creation of a district educational board, which might address itself to the reorganization of the existing grammar schools, the establishment of new ones where needed, and the management of all when once set in motion. "It would be possible," they argued, "to find in Man- "chester and the other manufacturing towns a sufficient number of "able men interested in the matter, to form a body which might "take a comprehensive view of the circumstances of the district "and impress a sort of unity upon its education, might excite and "direct local effort, and by communicating with persons in these "different towns render the experience of one place useful to "another. England trusts a little too much to the energy of "single citizens, and forgets the advantages of organization. In- "dividual energy may be enough where individual interest is the "mainspring of action, but in questions of education and social "improvement other means must be resorted to."

Desirable as the institution of a district board may appear, its success, considering the difficulty of finding men who would give time to work it, and the delicacy of the questions wherewith it would have to deal, cannot be considered certain, nor could it fail, while stimulating and advising local bodies, to need occasionally the aid and advice of a central office similar to the Charity Commission. But if the experiment of a district board is to be tried anywhere, it would be hard to find a fitter place for trying it than Lancashire.

Other expedients which have been suggested.

There are several minor points which might have been treated of in connexion with this part of the subject, but which it may be enough simply to mention. One is the possibility of grouping or in some way connecting the public schools throughout the manufacturing district. From Burnley to Stockport, the district is almost one continuous town, whose streets are the railways, and where trains serve for omnibuses. It might be well, therefore, while bringing a good plain education within everybody's reach by the foundation of new schools and the vivification of old ones, to set apart some two or three or more where the course of education should be more extended, and to which the minor schools might, if necessary, act as feeders. If placed in well-chosen central situations, these higher schools might serve, even as day schools, towns and villages lying at some distance from them along the lines of railway. A possible scheme for the re-arrangement of existing school exhibitions by means of grouping has already been mentioned (page 483); and if a relation were in this or some similar way established between different schools—if, for instance, there was a system of promotion from the lesser to the greater—it might be turned to account for other useful purposes.

Again, there exist in many of the manufacturing towns literary institutes, lyceums, and so forth, with some of which schools and

* See notes to page 726 and 758.

science classes are already connected. It has been suggested that in founding new schools these might perhaps be made available. Others have thought that Owens College in Manchester, being the chief organ of the higher education in the three manufacturing counties (Lancashire, Yorkshire, and Cheshire), ought to be connected with their schools, either by the foundation of exhibitions to be held at it by their scholars, or by entrusting to it functions of advice, or even of visitation and inspection. Into the discussion of such matters it is not necessary for me to enter.

Need felt of cheap and safe boarding establishments: desire that these should be founded under public authority.

There remains one other topic, of which this is perhaps the fittest place to speak. Even after a considerable extension of day schools, some parts of the manufacturing district must remain out of their reach, and even in those parts where they are accessible many parents will be found desiring from various reasons to send their children to a boarding school, yet unable to afford the expense of places like Marlborough, Rossall, or Clifton, or of the best private boarding schools around Manchester and Liverpool. It is by persons of this class that the cheap boarding schools (charging from 20*l.* to 35*l.* per annum) are now supported. Some of these cheap schools, there is too much reason to fear, are, both as respects instruction, accommodation, and moral tone, deplorably bad, while in few can it be possible to give at such cheap rates anything like good teaching and plentiful food to a small number (30 to 50) boys. Many parents feel this, and complain bitterly that they have no means of ascertaining where they may safely place their children. For their sakes it would seem desirable to found, on the verge of the manufacturing district, and probably in connexion with some existing grammar school, boarding houses under public management and constantly open to the visits of properly qualified public examiners or inspectors, so that every possible security shall be taken against the evils which it is sought to escape from. Some persons urge, and urge with great force, that such establishments ought not to be boarding schools, in the ordinary acceptation of the term, but hostels attached to day schools. "It "is an advantage to the boy," said they, "that he whom he lives "with should not also be his teacher, for in this way the teacher is "less an object of fear, and, not being constantly present out of "school hours, is not felt in school hours to be so wearisome. It "is a more plain advantage to the teacher, for his evenings are "free for study or relaxation, his mind is relieved of the exhausting sense of responsibility, he does not feel that he is making his "income off the food and lodging of the boys, that the interests of "his pocket and their health are opposed to one another. The "head master must be in the last resort responsible for the good "conduct and discipline of these hostels, but their internal economy "should be in the hands of a steward or other paid official charged "to provide good food at the lowest possible charge, and their "ordinary discipline ought not to be laid as a burden on the "assistant-masters, unless it is found impossible to procure other "competent persons." Respecting these views I need express no opinion. But what I saw left me in no doubt that the need for authorized boarding establishments at low fees is pressing, and

that an attempt made to supply them, whether by the State or by any influential public body, would be eagerly welcomed by Lancashire parents.

CHAPTER VII.

Concluding Remarks.

Statement of the views entertained and wishes expressed in Lancashire respecting certain expedients that have been suggested for the improvement of schools.

Your instructions directed me to ascertain, wherever it was possible to do so, the opinions and wishes of those with whom I was brought in contact. It may, therefore, be proper, before bringing to a close these observations upon the state of education in Lancashire, to report to you what expedients for the improvement of schools I found discussed, and what views respecting them are entertained by the advocates and opponents of each. Out of many —out of the almost infinite number which have been suggested— there are four which seem to require special mention.

I. Incorporation or registration of schoolmasters.

I. The first is the elevation and purification of the scholastic profession. Some persons hope that the former of these objects might be attained by the incorporation of teachers as a recognized body, the latter by a system of scholastic registration. Inquiring the views of schoolmasters respecting registration, I found some few zealous for it, a good many favourable, although in a languid way, and some others, themselves not the least eminent, altogether opposed to it. If those who have an opinion on the matter were polled, there would apparently be a majority for it. But the mass, especially those who teach the cheap private schools, do not seem to have any opinion whatever. The incorporation of teachers as a body having been attempted by the founders of the Royal College of Preceptors, I endeavoured to ascertain with what feelings that institution was regarded in Lancashire. This was not easy, for it seems to be scarcely known there. I do not remember to have met with more than two or three schoolmasters who were members of it, or at any rate who described themselves as such; and in looking through the list of the boys who pass the Preceptors' examinations (as reported in their official organ), few or none are entered as coming from Lancashire schools. It may be that in Lancashire, lying so far from London, the existence and objects of the College have not yet become known to those whose support it desires to enlist. It may be that the distrust which several teachers expressed of it, provoked by the use frequently made of the letters M.C.P.,* is shared by a number of their brethren. Whatever the cause, this institution does not appear to have acquired any hold upon the county.

Organization of the teaching profession: difficulties to be encountered.

I heard many persons urge very strongly the desirability of having teachers organized as a profession. Others, while agreeing that they might thus attain a social status and an independence of action which they now want and ought to possess, dwelt upon the

* These letters denote that he who enjoys the right to use them has paid 1*l.* 1*s.* as his subscription for the current year to the funds of the Royal College of Preceptors. It is to be feared that some schoolmasters use them knowing that many parents will suppose them to denote some academical honour, or the possession of some diploma bearing witness to literary or scientific eminence.

obstacles to such an organization which the present state of the profession shows to exist. There are in England, they remarked, three almost wholly distinct classes of teachers; firstly, the Oxford and Cambridge men in the endowed grammar schools and a few of the most expensive private schools; secondly, the teachers who conduct most of the private schools, men who have either graduated at London or Dublin, or not at any university; and, thirdly, the trained masters in the National and British and other elementary schools. Each of these three bodies is cut off from the other. The Oxford and Cambridge men are most of them clergymen, and their sympathies are rather for the Church of England and their own university than for their occupation. The trained masters are brought into an altogether peculiar set of relations by their dependence on Government and (in the case of the denominational schools) upon the clergy. It is only the second of the three classes that has any definite professional feeling; and as it is socially above the third, so (being composed in large measure of nonconformists) it stands in point of religion distinguished from the first. Hence, before the profession can be organized as one, it must be fused into one, and an *esprit de corps* created which is at present lacking in England, though it seems to exist in Germany and in America.*

University Local Examinations.

(2.) The university local examinations.

II. The second scheme for the improvement of schools which I heard discussed is one which has been for some time in actual operation, and has attracted a good deal of public notice, the local examinations conducted by the universities of Oxford and Cambridge. As these examinations have been taken up with some spirit in Lancashire, both Manchester and Liverpool being local centres, and as the number of candidates, already large, is increasing every year, it was easy to get abundance of information respecting their working, and the difficulty rather was to sift and estimate what was obtained. The rules and arrangements of these examinations are too well known to you, and stated too clearly in the Reports issued annually by the Oxford Delegacy and the Cambridge Syndicate to make it necessary to spend time in describing them. I shall therefore speak only of what I heard and saw regarding their actual operation.

Their services.

It is agreed that they have done a great deal to improve the tone of education, and that in several ways.

They have set before schoolmasters a definite standard to work up to, and have enabled them to see, by the performances of their pupils, what are the strong and what the weak points in their own teaching.

They have given several deserving schools the opportunity of commending themselves to the public by the success of their pupils in passing or in gaining honours.

They have excited the diligence of some boys in the schools which use them.

* In Germany there is held annually a great Lehrerversammlung, or congress of teachers, to which schoolmasters of all sorts and conditions flock from every part of the country. One can hardly suppose such an institution prospering in England as it is now.

They have roused the better class of schoolmasters, whether using them or not, to a sense of the importance of thoroughness and definiteness in school work, and have done something to call the attention of the general public to educational questions.

Their defects and incidental evils.

As against these admitted merits of the system I found the following defects and drawbacks urged, more strongly by some persons, less so by others, but on the whole to such an extent and upon such evidence as put their existence beyond doubt.

Have not reached the poorer schools.

1. They have not reached, and have therefore done nothing, or almost nothing, to improve the cheap day-schools (fees 3*l.* 3*s.* to 8*l.* 8*s.* per annum), and the cheap boarding schools (fees 20*l.* to 35*l.* per annum); and have therefore been unable to benefit the class which, being at this moment worst educated, needs some improvement most—the clerks, warehousemen, small shopkeepers, mechanics, and generally what is called the lower middle-class. This may in some degree be owing to the fee exacted to defray the expenses of the examination, which parents of this class are seldom willing to pay;* but it is rather to be ascribed to the narrow range of subjects taught in these schools, to the disadvantageous position of the teacher, who can rarely give a sound preparation, and most of all to the ignorance and dulness of parents, who set no value on education, and who, it is feared, would not encourage any teacher who should attempt to send his pupils in to be examined.†

Do not prove the general excellence of the school teaching.

2. They are no guarantee of the quality of the teaching throughout the school; for the proficiency of some boys may be gained by neglecting others. This difficulty was, of course, foreseen from the first, but it was supposed that the success of the pupils would at any rate prove the competence of the head-master. It does not, however, in the opinion of my informants, do even this; it proves only the presence in the school of some one teacher capable of giving sufficient preparation; the head-master and the other assistants may be as ignorant as they please. Nor, indeed, was the incompetence of teachers the prime evil which these examinations were designed to cure—it was rather the want of educational result upon the bulk of the pupils in a school, the dull as well as the clever. This evil, therefore, is pretty much what it was before.

Interfere with the internal arrangements of a school.

3. They have disturbed the arrangements of schools, and limited the discretion of masters in the choice of text-books and the method of handling subjects.‡ Several teachers complained that

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* Many schoolmasters complained to me of it, but none suggested how it could be dispensed with.

† I know of one case only in which the master of a cheap day school has from time to time sent in boys to be examined. In that case it must have been some satisfaction to the master, who was a man of vigour and merit, to see his pupils succeed; but it did not seem to have made any difference to the position of his school in the town.

‡ The head master of one of the best private schools in Manchester, or indeed in the county, a man of great judgment and experience, made the following answer to a question addressed to him respecting the local examinations. "As far as my ex- "perience has extended, I believe that these examinations act beneficially on bad "schools by securing a low maximum of instruction where very little was given "before. They act detrimentally on good schools, as the principal is in danger of "remaining satisfied if his boys can pass this really superficial examination. The

they could not now afford to teach as much classics and mathematics as they had taught before, and as they believed that they ought to teach with a view to the permanent benefit of their pupils, since they must give more time—and, as they thought, quite too much time—to geography, history, and the grammatical analysis of English sentences.* Almost every teacher admitted that his boys, except a very few of the most clever and most diligent, could not pass without special preparation; that is to say, they could not go in on the strength of their ordinary work in class. Some teachers finding they can't spare time to give special preparation, have ceased to send boys in to compete. Others give the special preparation to the boys whom they have selected to send in, neglecting in a greater or less degree the rest of the school. Others, among whom it need not be said are included the more conscientious men, give the special preparation at extra hours, putting more labour on themselves that the boys who are going in may not suffer.

Tend to injure the tone of the teaching.

4. They have a tendency, a tendency which high-minded schoolmasters resist, but which others yield to, to vitiate the tone of the teaching. Special preparation need not mean cramming; in some of the schools which I visited it certainly does not. And there are some subjects—Latin for instance, and mathematics—in which it is impossible to cram a boy so that he shall not be detected by a skilful examiner. Others, however, said my informants, and in a notable degree history and geography, may be crammed, and are crammed with great success.† The use of clever devices to assist the memory, the employment of manuals, and the practice of making the learner constantly reproduce on paper what his text-book has told him, will enable a boy to display in an examination a knowledge which his mind has not attempted to assimilate, and which will have departed from him in a few weeks.‡ And even when cramming is out of the question, special preparation is almost sure to take the form of what, for want of a better name, may be called over-teaching. If the subject prescribed be a Latin, or Greek, or French book, the boys are worked over it again and again till they know it almost by heart. If it be grammatical analysis, they are practised in taking sentences to pieces, and throwing off the "extensions" and so forth, till the thing becomes so mechanical that they almost lose the sense of what it means. It requires great strength of mind in the teacher to resist

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" instruction given to the best boys is apt to be limited to the requirements of the " university examiners. This limits the course of study and fetters the action of " really good teachers."

* One teacher told me that he had almost dropped Latin because he found it so much easier to make his boys pass in French. He admitted that in this way they got much less mental benefit; but then the thing answered equally well as an advertisement.

† It is obvious that this would not apply in anything like the same degree to history as studied by persons of mature minds, to whom questions requiring some little power of origination as well as of abstract thought may be given.

‡ By way of example, I may refer to the case of the school described in p. 559. Its pupils showed the greatest familiarity with the facts of English history, but did not appear to have derived the slightest mental benefit from the study. Probably they were the worse for it, for it is difficult to think that they could ever afterwards read history with pleasure.

the temptation to explain only such things as are likely to be useful in an examination, and to appeal constantly to the boy's ambition, to lead him, in fact, to look upon knowledge as valuable only when and because it can be set down in answers to a paper of printed questions.

May injure the health or the intelligence of the younger candidates.

5. Considering the age at which boys go in for these examinations, they impose or may impose too severe a strain upon the body and mind of the candidate. A great many stories were told me of boys whose health had suffered seriously from the stress of preparatory work and the excitement of the examination itself; and whether these stories are well founded or not, there can be no doubt that many parents believe the danger to be a real one, and refuse to let the schoolmaster send in their boys for the competition. It is this fear, much more than the offensive (and unauthorized) name "middle-class examinations," which has made so many of the wealthier people stand aloof from the scheme, and oppose the proposal to extend it to girls. Some persons who doubt whether there is any great reason to fear for the health, dwell very strongly on the bad effects of an examination system on the intelligence of boys of 14 or 15. "There is a danger," say they, "not only of overloading the mind for a few weeks, but of permanently narrowing and dwarfing it, and of destroying such "originality as it may possess. Moreover, it is not necessarily the "best boys who excel in such examinations. The pliability of "the intellect at 14, and its capacity for remembering information and reproducing it in a cut and dry form (for these are the "aptitudes most serviceable in an examination) are no sort of test "of what it will have developed into at 18 or 19. Hence the "value of these examinations as a means of eliciting talent, and "inducing boys of the commercial class to proceed to the universities is very much less than has commonly been assumed." In this remark, which evidently applies much more to the junior than to the senior examination, there seems to be some force. One hears of cases in which boys who have distinguished themselves very brilliantly at the local examinations proceed to the university, and do not attain more than a very moderate success there. One such boy (I remember to have been told in Cambridge) gave those who saw his work at college the impression that the freshness and spring had been taken out of his mind by the forcing system through which he had passed.*

Alleged causes of these evils.

It was chiefly by the masters of those schools which have most freely used and gained credit by the local examination that I heard these drawbacks to the present system descanted upon. Some ascribe them to the unduly high standard which, as they say, has been set up, and which makes special preparation necessary. Others think that too many subjects are required to be

* This is of course less likely to happen where the boys' natural power is considerable. I heard of another case in which a boy who had also distinguished himself highly at the local examinations, obtained the highest classical honours at his university. As it happened, he was going through a regular classical and mathematical course at an excellent classical grammar school, so that the examinations were only an episode in his career, and he would have in any case proceeded to the university.

taken in, and that boys are permitted to enter too young;* others that the evils complained of are chiefly due to the honour examination, and not to the pass. "If honours were not given, "and if prizes and scholarships had not unfortunately been at- "tached to the competition, we should not see, as we do now, boys "going in three or even four times in succession;† once or twice "for the Oxford examination, once or twice again for the Cambridge "one, and then once more for a prize or scholarship, their own am- "bition being stimulated by the schoolmaster, to whom each honour "gained is an advertisement for his school." Many persons thought that the most unfortunate thing about the whole scheme was the way in which three or four schoolmasters had taken it up and used it for their own purposes as a mere engine of puffery. "The thing was doing excellently," they said, "if it had been "left quietly to itself; as it is now, we have a great fuss, a solemn "presentation of prizes to the boys by some political or ecclesias- "tical star, a series of newspaper paragraphs in which the honours "of the examination are claimed on different scores by several "pushing teachers, and after all we know no better than we "did before where we may safely send our sons, whom we don't "want to make associates of arts, but to educate in a healthy "simple fashion till they are old enough to go to business." It is not to be denied that the success of a school in these examinations is far from being a proof of its excellence. A good many of the schools which I visited had done remarkably well, as well as any in England, in these examinations. Some of them, especially the public (grammar and proprietary) schools, were thoroughly good schools, and were very possibly the better for the examinations. Some were thoroughly bad (*i.e.*, giving no sound training, and wanting, so far as I could judge, a good tone, moral and intellectual). But it would have been impossible for a parent to discover, by their appearance in the public list, which did and which did not deserve his confidence.‡ One of the most

* Some persons declared to me that the experience of schools where places on a foundation are given by competition at an early age, has shown that the performances of a child of 12 or 14 are no certain evidence of what he will turn out, and that the stimulating influence of public examinations, which is not free from dangers and evils at any age, is often found to do permanent injury to persons under 15. One Lancashire head-master of great eminence, on my asking how far it was possible to predict a boy's future powers from his performances at 14, said, "I find that "the boy who strikes me as ablest at 13 or 14 turns out the ablest in the end, when "he reaches the highest classes. But his examination performances are very far from "being a test of his ability; and as a matter of fact it is not my best boys who do "best in these local examinations."

I heard of a case in which a boy had passed the junior examination at 12. No doubt he was as fit then as others might be at 14; still it seems undesirable that at such an age any child should be permitted to undergo a public examination of the kind.

† These cases do not seem to be very uncommon. I heard of one in which a boy had obtained the degree of A.A. four times over.

‡ A great many criticisms in detail are made by schoolmasters upon the examination rules and on the examination papers, into a minute account of which it seems needless to go. Two or three may be mentioned.

Many complaints are made respecting the Oxford rules for the subject entitled "The rudiments of Faith and Religion." Parents of the Church of England don't like to expose their boys to be plucked in a subject which Nonconformists may escape. Nonconformists don't like to be required to make a formal objection "*conscientiæ*

successful private schools (not that described in p. 558) struck me as being intellectually, and so far as I could judge, morally also, as bad as a school could well be.

Some of my informants thought the evils which have been mentioned as attributed to the present system so grave that they declared that the local examinations had done more harm than good. This, however, is not the general impression; nor is it, so far as I can form an opinion, one justified by the facts of the case. The general stimulus which these examinations have given to education seems a benefit sufficient to compensate even for the real and serious evils mentioned above. And it would be possible, in the opinion of many persons, to make changes in the present arrangements which would retain most of the good and get rid of the evil. Different remedies are suggested, a lowering of the standard, so as to let the pass represent nothing more than the respectable knowledge which an average number of a well-taught class might be expected to possess; the abolition of the honour examination, retaining the pass as at present; the giving a permission to obtain certificates in single subjects, without taking up the number now required; the abolition of the examination for juniors while retaining that for seniors; a change in the character of the examination, so that it should turn much less upon crammable subjects, like history and geography, and more upon a sound knowledge of a language (Latin or French), not merely of some prescribed book in that language, and upon proficiency in arithmetic, algebra and geometry. So far as the facts I saw enabled me to form any opinion on the matter, they led me to believe that the last of these proposals was a very sensible one, and ought to be adopted, and that it might perhaps be as well, if the examination for juniors be retained, to make it merely a pass examination, and perhaps a somewhat easier examination than it seems to be now. A great deal would be gained if that which one or two schools profess to do were regularly done, and if whole classes were sent in instead of boys selected and specially prepared.

Examination of Schools.

(3.) The examination of schools.

Thirdly. Many persons, and not the least those who dislike the local examinations as at present managed, advocate a system of inspection or examination, either for all schools or for endowed schools only.* I was at some pains therefore to inquire the

causa." I heard a story of a boy who having tendered the objection "*conscientiæ causa*" found that thus he would be excluded from competing for a prize of some value, one of the conditions attached to which was that the candidate should have passed in Faith and Religion. His conscience at once underwent a change and the objection was withdrawn. And some one told me of a Church of England parent who objected "*conscientiæ causa*," saying that his conscience did not allow him to expose his son to be plucked in any subject which he might escape.

Some schoolmasters complain bitterly of the examination in grammatical analysis, which is apt, they say, to turn entirely on an examiner's peculiar crotchets.

Others object to the examination in English literature, saying it is and must be met by cramming from manuals. And an infinitude of criticisms, frequently just ones, are passed upon particular questions in the papers, especially those set in geography.

* Such examination is now offered by the University of Cambridge, but it has been accepted in very few cases; in Lancashire (to the best of my belief) by one school only. This may be in great measure owing to the expense.

opinion of schoolmasters, trustees, and others upon this question. As respect endowed schools, there is a very general, indeed a surprisingly general agreement, that such a measure would be beneficial. It was not without apprehensions of resistance, or at least of suspicion, on the part of head masters and governing bodies, that I entered on the course of visits to endowed schools which you directed me to pay; and it was with as much surprise as gratification that I found out of more than 100 endowed schools only one, an obscure school in Wales, which offered any opposition. The trustees of endowed schools not only acknowledge the right of the State to inquire into the condition of charitable foundations, but seem in almost all places glad that anything should be done to bring the school into notice, and stimulate its master and scholars to exertion. The head-masters, who have so much to struggle against in the sordid notions of parents and the difficulty of changing the frequently antiquated rules of the foundation, appear disposed, so long as their own independence is respected, to welcome the visit of an examiner, explain to him the circumstances of the school, and give him every facility for seeing the work of the boys. Frequently they told me that they particularly wished to be able to procure examiners from the universities annually (as some do already), and that they deplored the want of funds which now checks them. Others who can afford the money do not know how to get men from Oxford or Cambridge; and hence many expressed a hope that steps would be taken to create public provision for periodical examinations of the grammar schools. Sometimes I found them taking it for granted that the present Commission was to be permanent, and asking when they might expect another visit, adding that they hoped then to be better prepared, and that the prospect of an examination would enable them to spur on their boys to greater efforts. Inquiring very often from trustees whether they would object to such examination, they answered invariably, so far as I can remember, that they would desire it. As respects private adventure schools, the case is different; inspection would of course be offered to such schools as a favour, not imposed as an obligation. But so far as I could gather from conversing with their teachers, most of them would object to the institution of a system of voluntary inspection, not wishing to use it themselves, and fearing that if others did while they did not they would be placed in a disagreeable position. Many, however,—more perhaps than could have been expected, and among these a considerable number of the most able and competent schoolmasters, said they did desire such inspection, and would probably accept it if offered; supposing of course that it were done in a way which neither trenched upon their own dignity nor exposed their school to accidental disadvantage. Both they and the endowed schoolmasters said that although they valued the visit of an independent examiner both for the sake of the boys and for their own sake (inasmuch as it might give them hints as to their own weak points and as to possible improvements in method), it would not be fair to let the

Views respecting such examinations as applied to endowed schools.

As applied to private schools

school suffer from the crotchets of a particular examiner, or from the fact that at any given moment there was a set of dull boys in the higher classes. And fears were sometimes expressed that examiners either from Oxford or Cambridge might be apt to lay too great stress upon proficiency in classics and mathematics, undervaluing the ordinary branches of an English education.

Who should appoint the examiners.

There exists more difference of opinion respecting the authority to whom the duty of appointing examiners—if examiners are to be appointed—should be committed. Some persons said they would give it to a department of the State, thinking that the principle of local self-government is strong enough in England to prevent a central authority from drawing too much to itself or paralyzing individual effort; and believing that nothing short of a permanent administrative body could be sufficiently active and systematic to do the work which has to be done, and to rouse the local boards of trustees to a sense of their responsibility. Others deprecate even the appearance of centralization; and maintain that the interference of Government in educational matters would excite a jealousy that would go far to destroy its possible utility. "A Government board," they say, "would for the first few "years be pliable and conciliatory, feeling that it had to win its "way. But before long it would degenerate into routine, and "would introduce a mechanical and monotonous system, whose "evils would be even greater than those which neglect and dis-"order gives rise to now. Moreover, it would not readily escape "the suspicion of being actuated by political motives. In our "opinion, therefore, it would be safer to entrust the supervision "of endowed schools and the appointment of examiners for all "schools, to the Universities, independent bodies, from whose "members the examiners would in any case be mainly chosen. "We do not deny that the Universities might be less energetic "than a paid board, and we admit that their action, as they "are at present constituted and governed, would be regarded "with great suspicion by the Nonconformists. These objections, "however, are not insuperable, and it is permissible to hope "that the greatest good might result to the whole country "from bringing its highest literary and educational institutions "into some relation with the body of the people. At present "the Universities are useful only to one class of the people; "their enormous wealth is spent in educating persons who can "for the most part perfectly well pay for their own educa-"tion, and in giving, through their fellowships, a start in life "to young men whose abilities and whose private means (in "many cases) would enable them to fight their own way. A "measure like this might restore to them that hold over the "nation which they have lost, and might do something to bridge "over that chasm between the education of the rich and that of "the middle and poorer classes, which is at present the most "fatal defect in the English school system."

It may be worth while to add that some persons held that examiners, if appointed, should not be a permanent body

employed upon the work of examining only (like the inspectors of Privy Council schools), lest they should come to do their work in a merely mechanical fashion, and lest the teachers in their district should be constantly subjected to the peculiar views or crotchets of any single examiner. It would be better, said they, to have a large roll of persons approved as examiners (whether chosen by Government or by the Universities), and let an examiner be on each occasion selected from this roll and sent down to the particular school or group of schools to be examined. This, it is supposed, would give greater freshness to the thing, and would better secure the independence of the schoolmaster.

District Boards.

(4.) District boards of education.

Fourthly. A fourth question which I heard discussed has reference to the advisability of appointing district boards to superintend the endowed schools of a particular local circumscription—a county, for example, or group of counties. As it is agreed that the separate local bodies, *i. e.* the trustees of individual schools, have been remiss in the discharge of their duties, and that some step must be taken to rouse them up, and to establish a relation between the schools of each district, the point at issue is whether this should be done by a district board, or by a central board (*i. e.* a public department analogous to the Charity Commission), or by both together. Those whose opinions I inquired agreed that a district board would be desirable in itself, and in some respects safer than a central board; but they doubted whether it would be possible to get a sufficient number of influential people to take an interest in it and work it. "Unless very considerable powers were granted to it, a seat at such a board would not be an object of ambition, and the whole thing would either languish or fall into the hands of some permanent official or one or two active men. In an agricultural district the board would merely represent the landed gentry, who have already shown, as local trustees, their indifference to educational improvement, and who are almost all men of one party. In a manufacturing district, where politics run high, it might be hard to get men of different parties to work harmoniously together. What we doubt, however, is only the possibility of such an institution, not its desirability; the experiment may be quite worth trying; and no place is fitter to try it in than this county, where there is at any rate no lack of energetic and public spirited men, representing very different interests and shades of opinion."

General Character of Education in Lancashire.

Education in Lancashire 'commercial.'

What this word denotes or ought to denote.

It has been shown already that the overwhelming majority of Lancashire boys receive what is called a commercial education; to show therefore what this amounts to, is to describe the educational condition of the county. The term is itself not free from ambiguity—an ambiguity which is natural enough, but at the same time very harmful. In the mouths of almost all who use it, parents

and schoolmasters, it means that measure of instruction which a boy must have to enter a shop or an office with a tolerable prospect of rising; but taken in its higher sense, as denoting the education suitable for one who is to go to business at 15 or 16, it means, or ought to mean, a great deal more. It would include, in the first place, so much of practical preparation for work as the boy's future occupation may require; that is to say, a good hand, readiness at accounts, some power over English words, and enough general information to enable him to watch with intelligent eyes the phenomena of trade, and to understand the events that are passing in his own and other countries. In the second place it includes such knowledge and such aptitudes as may fit him to be a useful member of society and of the state; that is, it ought to give the boy who is to have no further systematic training such a mastery over some one language besides his own as may enable him to distinguish words from thoughts in his own. It ought to let him understand the nature of demonstrative reasoning, and give him some ideas respecting the phenomena of the material universe, and the way in which they are investigated. Of the history and political constitution of his own country, it should let him have so much knowledge—or at least so much wish to acquire that knowledge—as may prevent him from being, when he reaches manhood, absolutely at the mercy of the leading articles in the newspaper which he reads. It ought to aim, through the teaching of every subject, at so strengthening his faculties as to make him competent to carry a number of facts in his mind, see relations between them, and weigh the evidence by which the existence of these relations may be established or controverted. Lastly, it ought to give him—or at least to attempt to give him—tastes and interests which, even if they do not lead him to follow out some study for himself, may at least enable him to derive pleasure from literature, and keep him from sinking into a merely animal existence. To what extent this can be done before the age of 15 must depend greatly not merely on the cleverness of a given boy or class of boys, but on the atmosphere by which he or they is or are surrounded at home. It would be over sanguine to expect it to be often carried out completely and successfully. What may be expected is that something should be done towards it, something sufficient to leave a permanent impress, and to distinguish in after life the man who has remained at school till 16 from the man who, having left school at 12, has received only that elementary and in the main mechanical education, beyond which it is at present held to be impossible to carry the great mass of the population. The question, in fact, is not of doing the thing perfectly, but of doing it to an appreciable extent, and so far as it goes, thoroughly and rationally. This limited measure of success is not attained in Lancashire. The first, or practical part of a commercial education, that which is to fit a boy for business, is given of course, but given—according to the general testimony of merchants, parents, and schoolmasters themselves—so imperfectly that boys usually have to pick up in the warehouse or office what

Present shortcomings.

they should have learned at school. The other part, that which should start the boy in life with a disciplined mind, susceptible to intellectual impressions, and capable of filling his place as a citizen, is not often thought of, less often seriously attempted, and least often prosecuted with success. The Lancashire schoolmasters are not, as a body, incompetent; on the contrary, there is reason to believe them distinctly superior to those in the country towns throughout England, and certainly not inferior to those of the metropolis. Their teaching of arithmetic, for example, is better than what is to be found in theschools of Shropshire, Worcestershire, and Wales. But the level of commercial education in Lancashire is very low; it is seldom thorough, even in the more expensive schools; it is meagre and narrow, as well as unsound in the cheaper ones; while that which may be described as its tone and spirit is in all but a few of them, low and poor. Their causes.

The causes of this state of things have been treated of already. They seem to be the following:—

1. The education of children, from the age of five or six till ten, is neglected, or mismanaged in a way which is often worse than neglect.

2. The existing schools are for the most part small: hence a proper organization of classes becomes more difficult, teaching power is wasted, and the momentum and spirit which numbers give are lost.

3. The arrangements of schools are often defective. Assistant masters are left too much to themselves; they are not selected for their power of teaching any one subject well, and allowed to devote themselves to it, but are set to teach all subjects, however scanty their knowledge, however slight their skill.

4. Parents, knowing nothing about education, often obstruct and very rarely assist the schoolmasters. Those who use the more expensive schools are often exacting, and expect the (private) schoolmaster to obey their caprice, requiring him to teach too many things to their children, and by consequence to teach them superficially. Those of lower social rank discourage all teaching except that of the subjects useful in business, whereof they can perceive the direct pecuniary value.

5. There is altogether a low estimate of the office and functions of the schoolmaster. A commercial education, as has been said, is practically taken to mean an education which will be directly serviceable in business, *i.e.*, will help one to make money. The result of this misconception is that not only are those subjects neglected whose utility is less direct—those which go to form the man, rather than the shopkeeper, merchant, or manufacturer—but that the practical subjects themselves, arithmetic for instance, are taught in an unscientific way, and are made to do but little towards the strengthening of the intelligence. The more schools I saw in Lancashire, and the more I conversed with persons of experience and judgment there, so much the less fanciful did it seem to attribute most of the existing defects in education to the want of a due recognition of the higher view of its functions —of what I have heard people call its ideal element. It sounds very trite to say that there is a distinction between Class education.

education and instruction, and that the teacher's prime function is not to make the boy write and cipher and spell and repeat the kings of England and the rivers o : Siberia : but to elicit and train his intellectua powers. Yet this principle, so far from being acted upon, makes little head against the theory of class education which is dominant in Lancashire, and tacitly adopted by not a few of its supposed educational reformers. Nothing seems to be at this moment doing so much harm to the education of the middle classes as the notion that there is such a thing as 'middle class education'—that one sort of education is fit for the poor, another for commercial men, another for the rich; and that the studies of commercial men should be in an especial manner directed towards practical life and the acquiring of useful information, as those of the upper class are towards culture and intellectual development. There is plainly a difference between a course of training which stops at 15 or 16 and one which stops at 23, and if that were all that the phrase "middle class education" means, it could not be accused of doing injury to anyone. As it is now used in Lancashire it does mean or at least imply something else. It leads people to think that the difference between "upper class" and "middle class" education is not one of quantity or degree only but also one of kind; that the son of a clerk whose income is 400*l.* or 500*l.* a year does not need (just as much as the son of a squire or a great merchant with 4,000*l.* a year) to have his mind enlarged and his faculties exercised, and that there is some sort of opposition between this mental training and the knowledge (of accounts, for instance) which will be useful in business, so that a cultivated intellect is as much out of place in a warehouseman who lives in a 30*l.* house as gold plate would be upon his table.

Class distinctions, which sixty years ago hardly existed in schools, seem to be greatly on the increase in them now; obvious as it is, that to introduce them is not more offensive in a social point of view than it is injurious to the best interests of education. The chief educational want of Lancashire at present is a system of efficient day schools, and in day schools it is fortunately easier than in boarding schools to induce parents of the better class to dispense with their idol—"selectness." It is, therefore, if one may judge from the facts of the case, as unnecessary as it is certainly undesirable in extending and improving the Lancashire schools to mark them out for any one class in the community, or give their instruction an exclusively practical direction.

Arithmetic and Latin the two vital branches of instruction in commercial schools.

There are two subjects—arithmetic and Latin—which seem to be marked out as the proper basis of an education which is to last till 15 or 16. Arithmetic is not only by far the most practically useful branch of knowledge for a Lancashire boy, but is also one which most admits of and best repays strictly scientific treatment. Worked at with great energy, and carried up into algebra and elementary geometry, it ought not only to give the school course a scientific value, but also to satisfy the demands and win the support of parents. Latin, on the other hand, is the best centre for the literary or linguistic part of the training; it

has, as I once heard an eminent Lancashire teacher remark, the inestimable advantage of being a subject which grows gradually more difficult as the learner advances in it; it may be connected with English grammar and composition on the one hand, and made on the other to expedite the learner's progress in French; it gives, in the present condition of things, a social character and status to the school in which it exists, and makes it useful not only to boys whose education is to be completed there, but also to those whose parents mean to send them afterwards to some more exclusively classical seminary.

As I have already attempted to show, the hostility of shopkeepers and farmers to Latin has arisen from the fact that the commercial subjects have been hitherto sacrificed to classics, not that the latter have been well taught, but that they have been a pretext for neglecting everything else. If the two were reconciled, this hostility would in time disappear; if a school teaches arithmetic and writing thoroughly well, it may with impunity teach whatever else the schoolmaster or the governess think best fitted to train and develope the mind. The experience of some schools proves that it is quite possible to give boys before 15 or 16 as good a commercial education as they can possibly need, a linguistic and scientific training, real and valuable so far as it goes, and a far greater amount of general information and general intelligence than has been attained under the present system of classical schools.

The Higher Education.

The higher education.

Although a commercial education, *i.e.* one which ceases at 15, may be the lot of the great majority of boys in any given community, as it unquestionably must be in Lancashire, there will yet be always a certain proportion who receive that more complete and lengthened one which we call a collegiate or university education, and which is sometimes distinguished from the shorter course as having for its aim not only training but also culture.* The proportion who pass through such a course is, in Lancashire, smaller than might have been expected or wished. There are in the county two institutions which profess to give it; Queen's College, Liverpool, and Owens College, Manchester.† The former of these has been a complete failure; in 1865, there were but six students in its day classes. The Owens College has been much more successful; yet even it, with a good endowment and a staff of professors highly eminent in their respective departments, has only 110 students in its day classes; most of whom are to be found in the literary classes; the rest being engaged on some branch of

* It is obvious of course that there is no training without culture, any more than there is culture without training: the two are not opposed to one another but are both opposed to the narrowly practical education. Nevertheless it may be said that in the earlier part of a complete education the chief thing is, so to speak, to rough hew the mind, in the later part to give it a fine polish.

† Stonyhurst has a collegiate department, in which there are usually 15 or 20 young men; but being a purely denominational institution, it may be excluded from consideration.

natural science, mainly with a view to practical life.* Much of the work done, owing to the imperfect preparation of the students, is work which ought to have been got through at school.

As respects the old universities the case is not better. The little use made of existing exhibitions in the lesser grammar schools has already been remarked upon (*supra*, p. 480 *et seq.*) In order to ascertain as exactly as possible the number of boys who continue their general education after leaving the Lancashire schools, I sent a circular to the grammar schools of Manchester, Lancaster, Preston, Bury, Bolton, Hawkshead, Wigan, Warrington, Burnley, Clitheroe, Kirkham, and Rivington (the only grammar schools which profess to give an education fitting boys for the university) as well as to Rossall, the three great schools of Liverpool, and several of the most important private adventure schools of the county, asking them to state the number of boys who had gone from them within the last five years to pursue their education at any university or college.† The result was as follows:

Slight extent to which Lancashire boys go to the Universities.

Average number of persons who go annually from Lancashire schools: ‡

To Oxford and Cambridge - -	32·8 §
To the Scotch Universities - -	2·4
To Trinity College, Dublin - -	3·2
To Owens College, Manchester - -	2·4 (20·0 ?)
To other institutions professing to give an university education - -	3·0

Causes thereof.

The population of Lancashire was, in 1861, 2,429,440, which will give about 3,000 boys belonging to what is called the middle class, in their 19th year. Of these, then, about 41, or 1·4 per cent., proceed yearly from all the Lancashire schools put together to any place of superior education out of the bounds of Lancashire, and about 1·1 per cent. to Oxford and Cambridge. The population of Lancashire is a little less than one-eighth part of the total population of England and Wales, and the number of undergraduates who enter annually at Oxford and Cambridge is something over 900, of whom Lancashire sends about one twenty-seventh. Thus the proportion of men from Lancashire schools at the universities is less than one-third of that which the population of the county bears to that of England. It is unnecessary to show in how many ways it is a misfortune for the Lancashire people, and in a particular manner for the Lancashire schools, to have so

* This is no detraction from the utility of the college, but it shows that the use made of it, as a place of general education, is even less than might at first sight appear.

† There are, of course, many Lancashire boys who go to the Universities from boarding schools situated out of Lancashire. But these boys do not represent or act upon the schools of the county itself; and against them must be set the non-Lancashire boys who go to Oxford or Cambridge from Rossall, Lancaster, and some of the Liverpool schools.

‡ This table is obviously incomplete as respects Owens College, which probably receives 20 young men annually who have been educated in Lancashire schools. Otherwise, and especially as regards Oxford and Cambridge, I believe it to be tolerably correct, for, though I could not obtain information from every one of the private schools, I did get it from nearly all the best.

§ Of these 22 come from the grammar schools of Manchester and Lancaster, and from Rossall; 6·6 from the three public schools of Liverpool. Thus, all the other schools of the county, endowed and private, send only 4·2 boys annually.

little connexion with the higher education of the country as these figures show them to have. The chief cause is, no doubt, the pressure towards commercial life and the indisposition of boys (as well as of their parents) to spend four, five, or even six years on apparently unprofitable studies, and find themselves at 20 or 22 only ready to enter life, while their old schoolfellows have already made way in business, gained a place in society, and begun to think of marriage. Nevertheless something may be set down to the insufficient provision of education fitting a boy for the universities, and to the want of what may be called mediating institutions, whose function it should be to connect Oxford and Cambridge with the ordinary school, and make the idea of going there less strange and remote than it is at present. In Manchester and in Lancaster the grammar schools, in Liverpool the College and the Royal Institution, already do this; and scholarships are frequently gained at Oxford and Cambridge by boys from all four schools. But in the rest of the county such seminaries are hardly to be found, the first duty of the schools being to provide for the needs of those who leave at 15. There are, moreover, many persons, chiefly professional men, clergymen of all denominations, physicians, solicitors, architects, and engineers, who desire a superior education for their sons, but cannot afford to keep them four years at Oxford or Cambridge* A provision for such cases may be made in two ways. Some of them, and a certain number of merchants also who could not or would not keep their sons unemployed later than 19 or 20, might avail themselves of Owens College, and will, it is to be hoped, begin to do so when that institution has obtained a more suitable local dwelling-place and has made itself more widely known. Its extension and prosperity ought certainly to be objects of the highest interest not to Manchester only, but to all Lancashire, to which, and to Yorkshire and Cheshire, it may aspire to render services similar to those which the University of Aberdeen has rendered in the north of Scotland. Those persons, on the other hand, who wish for a full university course at Oxford or Cambridge, may be aided by a better arrangement of the exhibitions which now exist; by the foundation, if possible, of new ones; by being kept better informed than they are at present of the scholarships offered for competition at the two universities, and above all by the cheapening of the universities themselves.† Many

Means by which a university education may be made more accessible.

* I endeavoured to ascertain, by particular inquiries, to what extent parents who wish their sons to have an Oxford or Cambridge education are now prevented from giving it to them by poverty. Both in Lancashire and in the West Midland counties the answer was usually the same. Not many actual cases could be cited in which this had taken place; but it was said that this was because parents, knowing from the first that they could not afford to send their sons there, fixed upon some other profession for them, and that if an university education was to be considerably cheapened the afflux of boys would increase greatly. The general impression which I received was that there would in the end be an afflux, but that it would not be rapid. An Oxford or Cambridge course is at present considered, except by such clergymen of the Church of England as are themselves members of these universities, a luxury suitable only for the very rich, or for persons designed for the church or the bar.

† Some of my informants were for this reason disposed to attach much importance to the proposal recently made by some university reformers for the affiliation to

of my informants laid great stress not only upon the expensiveness of college life as an obstacle to the influence of the universities but also upon the complete ignorance respecting their arrangements and the nature of the studies pursued in them, which, as they said, prevails in Lancashire, and is not inconsistent with that great respect which one everywhere hears expressed for their antiquity and, above all, for their wealth.

A word may be added upon those educational arrangements of Oxford and Cambridge which make them difficult of access to the bulk of the English middle class. For persons of limited means, the one avenue to a university education is through the scholarships attached to the colleges. With a few trifling exceptions, these are now given by competitive examination and are open to every candidate under a certain age, from whatever school and whatever part of the country he may come. But as the examination turns (in the colleges at Oxford) almost exclusively upon the Greek and Latin classics, and as proficiency in verse composition contributes largely to success, these scholarships are practically restricted to boys from the great classical boarding schools, or so called 'public schools,' Harrow, Rugby, Marlborough, Cheltenham, Clifton, Rossall, and the like, and to a very few of the most prosperous grammar schools, such as Birmingham, Manchester, Lancaster, and Uppingham, since it is in these schools alone that a boy's Latin and Greek composition is or can be brought up to a high point of excellence. Even from such considerable grammar schools as those of Preston, Bury, and Clitheroe, never to speak of Hawkshead, Cartmel, Ormskirk,* a boy who did not possess surprising natural abilities would have no sort of chance of gaining an open scholarship at Oxford. At Cambridge things are not so bad, because a greater number of scholarships are given for mathematics; and there can be no doubt that Cambridge has failed far less signally than Oxford in making its vast endowments helpful to the bulk of the middle classes. This is one drawback. A second is, that whereas in Germany a university gives not only a general education but also a specific one, fitting men for every occupation in which scientific knowledge is available, (including some occupations which we do not commonly class as professions,) the English universities give no professional education whatever except to the clergy, and even that to the most limited extent. Hence, on one goes to Oxford or Cambridge unless he can afford to prolong

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Oxford of Owens College and similar collegiate institutions, so as to draw on students who had begun their education there to complete it at Oxford. They agreed that it would be a great evil for the university to give a degree without residence, but they thought that it might be possible to abridge the term of residence now required, if rules were framed restricting this privilege to the students of seminaries giving a truly collegiate, and not a mere school, education. To draw up and work such a scheme might, they said, be somewhat difficult; but if it could be carried out it might benefit all parties: Oxford by drawing more students; Owens College by giving it a better position and a wider range of influence through these new privileges; Lancashire generally by making the advantages of a university education better known and more easily accessible to persons of limited means.

* All six, as has been said already, are efficient schools, taught by competent masters.

his general education till he is 22, seeing that after that he must pass through two or three years at least of some special education to become a barrister or solicitor, or a medical man, or a civil engineer. It may be doubted, therefore, whether any scheme of university extension will succeed in giving Oxford and Cambridge a substantial hold upon the commercial and poorer professional class, and on the schools they use, unless either (α) it becomes the habit for students to enter two years younger than they do now (16–17, instead of 18–19), or (β) provision is made giving special professional teaching a place beside those general studies which are now alone regarded.

Want of Educational Organization.

No attempt to organize schools: results of the *laissez faire* system.

I heard frequent complaints of the absence in matters of education of all concerted action among either parents, schoolmasters, or trustees, and of any sort of general or public organization of schools with reference to one another. Everything is left to take its chance, and every man does that which is right in his own eyes. There is nothing to help a good schoolmaster, nobody to give him a certificate of fitness, no means to bring his school into notice which are not equally open and equally serviceable to the most ignorant pretender. Nor is there anything to check a bad schoolmaster, to prevent him from beguiling ignorant parents by professing knowledge which he does not possess and giving in his prospectus false accounts of his premises and assistant-masters, from starving his pupils and putting them to sleep, two or three in a bed, in stifling rooms. Where the State has interfered, as in the creation and payment of the Privy Council schools, it has acted without reference to the pre-existing provision or want of provision of schools, whether elementary or superior; and while benefiting education in one way has incidentally injured it in another. A parish where the incumbent is non-resident or neglectful may now happen to be left without a school of any kind, while in the next parish there is a National school, and one or more endowed schools. One finds in some silent country nook a well endowed foundation, whose sole result is to teach reading and writing to a handful of labourers' children; while the people of a busy manufacturing town ten miles off have no place but the National and British schools to send their children to. But although those who grumble at this state of things are more numerous than those who commend it as a gratifying result of the *laissez faire* system, it is, nevertheless, rare to find anyone prepared to suggest a scheme of improvement. Each class has its own peculiar grievance, and if it has time to think of a remedy at all, thinks only of a remedy for that. Trustees complain that they have no one to help or advise them in the management of their schools; endowed schoolmasters that they have no means of stirring up their trustees. The clergy say they are left to deal single-handed with the country elementary schools; philanthropists in towns lament that they can neither get the public money applied to the education of the destitute poor, nor supply the

want of it by voluntary subscriptions, nor force the reckless and profligate to send their children to the schools provided. Parents declare they have no means of distinguishing good schools—above all good boarding schools, from bad ones, and must act upon the evidence of rumour or an advertisement in choosing the man who is to form the character and train the intellect of their son. Schoolmasters call for some measure which may exclude from the profession the ignorant charlatan who now degrades it: they lament that having no external test or standard to appeal to, they are at the mercy of, and must see their best plans of education thwarted by, narrow-minded and ignorant parents; they insist above all on the impossibility of obtaining, at the present rate of fees and salaries, competent assistant-masters—men who can teach a lesson as well as hear it, men of energy and character. Not all of these complainants, perhaps not any, expected the evils they regretted to be entirely removed, either by the combined efforts of private persons or by the action of the State. But many of them thought there was room for legislation, and all concurred in desiring their dissatisfaction and its causes to be plainly set before you, believing that the indifference of the public to educational questions, and the slight discussion they have hitherto received is itself an obstacle to improvement, and the one which must first be got rid of.

"And in all that is done or attempted," said some of them, "it were well to keep in sight one truth, whose obviousness "makes it none the less important to repeat it without "ceasing, that the great object of all improvements must "be to procure better teachers. Questions respecting the "management of schools, or their internal arrangements, or the "subjects to be taught in them, are after all trifling matters "compared to this. Teaching is simply the action of mind upon "mind, and as the problem of the engineer is to bring the greatest "attainable steam power to act upon the piston, so the problem "of education is to bring the greatest possible quantity of mental "power in the teacher to bear upon the pupil. The quantity "of mental power depends on the talent, energy, and skill of the "teacher; and whether you get these depends, in the long run, "on the price you are prepared to give for them. It is no doubt "well to consider the means by which this power may best and "most economically be applied. A good system of school organi-"zation will do something; the introduction of rational methods "and text-books will do even more. But we need look for no "real or permanent improvement in our schools until they are "filled by a new race of teachers, better paid, better trained for "their work, and above all, more highly educated."

The want of a due provision of education, the absence of all order and method in the school system taken as a whole, may perhaps be no greater in Lancashire than elsewhere, but it strikes a stranger with more surprise because it is so forcibly contrasted with the wonderful development of the district in other respects. Living in Lancashire, one learns to sympathise with that patriotic

pride which its natives feel for this great county, which has contributed more than any other part of England to the wealth and prosperity of England as a whole, whose manufacturers have shown so much energy and enterprise, its working people so much self-control and power of combination for a common object. It is natural, while acknowledging the inadequacy of the existing schools, to attribute it in some measure to the rapidity with which population has increased, and to expect that, as society becomes more settled, better schools will spring up, and the intellectual condition of the people rise till it becomes more worthy of their material prosperity. At the same time, it is right to state to you that the views taken by some of the most experienced and thoughtful persons with whom I conversed, were far from encouraging. "It is true," said they, "that there is no want of energy among "us, but this energy is spent only in the acquisition of wealth, "and though there are many people who would subscribe liberally "to projects of educational reform, there are few, perhaps fewer "than would have been found twenty years ago, to interest themselves personally in such projects, and spend their own time and "labour upon them. The intelligence and culture of our people "seems to us, if improving at all, to be improving very slowly. "The Factory Acts have done something for the education of the "working people, but in those trades to which these Acts do not "apply the pressure of labour still causes great numbers of "children to grow up in ignorance. Besides, the Government "schools give a very mechanical sort of instruction; and as they "are quite cut off from the superior schools, a boy of capacity "has no chance given him of getting a better education, or "rising into a position where his talents will have scope. There "is a greater isolation than ever between classes, and, we fear, "a less cordial relation between employers and workmen. The "upper class, as we told you before, are absorbed in the pursuit "of wealth, and in the effort to gain a more assured social position, and, if possible, force themselves into the ranks of the "landed aristocracy. The commercial class is prosperous and "comfortable, but its notions of enjoyment don't go beyond "material comfort, and the only ambition of its more pushing "members is to amass riches enough to enable them to outshine "their neighbours, and win that higher social status which riches "and display do not fail in a commercial community to secure. "It cares very little about politics, and is commonly guided, in "its political action, either by prejudice or by a narrow and "often mistaken conception of its own interests. Its whole life "is dull and colourless, a monotonous round of labour, unrelieved, "in most cases, by rational pleasures or by a taste for any literary "or scientific pursuit. You may think it mere idle grumbling to "complain of this, because we are all so familiar with it. "Dulness and insensibility are the rule everywhere; and perhaps "our age and country are no worse than others. But the very "purpose of education, as we take it, is to give those intellectual "tastes which combat dulness, and to make a man interested in

" other things than his own household and his own business—
" to enlarge his sympathies and disabuse his mind of prejudices.
" The education which the middle classes now receive does not
" do this, does not even attempt to do it. For all that we can
" see, they might pretty nearly as well not go to school at all,
" except for the sake of learning to write and cast accounts,
" for they carry nothing else away. It is all very well to say
" that education comes more through books than through school,
" and to talk of the civilizing and refining influence of literature.
" But a great deal of current literature does anything but civilize
" and refine; and to enjoy literature of a high stamp, men must
" be educated up to its level. Our middle class is not now so
" educated; it is not, taking it all in all, a class which cares for
" literature, or learns anything from it."

How far these views are jaundiced, or how far they are an expression of the disappointment with which over-sanguine minds regard a state of things far below their ideal, I do not attempt to judge, desiring only to represent to you some of the grounds on which the dissatisfaction so generally felt at the educational condition of Lancashire rests. There will, of course, be much difference of opinion as to the extent of the social benefits which may be expected from an improvement in the schools of the county. But two things seem to be sufficiently clear. The first is that a higher and sounder education is among the simplest and directest remedies that can be applied to those evils which are admitted to exist. The other is that little or no improvement in education need be looked for so long as things are left to themselves. If the teaching received by the upper section of what is called the middle class is neither searching nor stimulating, and not such as produces any permanent effect upon the mind and character, if that of the lower section of the same class is, as it unquestionably is, narrow in range and poor in quality, scarcely fitting boys even for the sale room or the counting-house, this is not so much the fault of the schoolmasters as of the public. Those very faults of the commercial class which are charged on the badness of its schools, its want of intellectual interests, its worship of wealth and show, its indifference to everything which has not a direct money value, are themselves the causes which keep the schools down to their present level. And at that level they will apparently remain until something is done, whether by the State, or by local public bodies, or by combined voluntary effort, to offer to parents a better education for their children than they now desire or are capable of appreciating, and to convince them of its value. The enjoyment of the benefits of such an education will in time create a taste for it, and people will then be willing to pay the schoolmaster better than they do now, and to hold him in higher esteem.

CHAPTER VIII.

The Education of Girls.

Your instructions directed me to consider the education of girls as an altogether secondary and subsidiary department of the inquiry which I was charged to conduct in Lancashire. Making it my first business, therefore, to visit all the numerous endowed schools and as large a number as could be overtaken of the proprietary and private adventure boys' schools, I found it impossible to devote to the subject of girls' education the time and pains which its importance deserved, and to examine as great a number of schools as it would, under more favourable circumstances, have been desirable to become acquainted with. As it was I succeeded in visiting upwards of 50 (containing more than 2,000 scholars) 35 of which I examined, with more or less completeness as time permitted. If it had been necessary, as there seemed before entering on the inquiry some reason to fear, to spend time in seeking out schoolmistresses less unwilling than others to receive a visit, in disarming apprehensions and explaining at length the objects of the Commission, I could not have hoped to accomplish even so much as this. But these preliminary operations were fortunately far simpler and shorter than could have been expected. I found the mistresses of private schools upon the whole more willing to afford information and permit their pupils to be examined than were the private schoolmasters. And although at first greatly surprised to hear that the Commission considered them to lie within its province, they testified very little jealousy of its action, and often ended by expressing their belief that such inquiries could not fail to be useful, and deserved whatever sympathy and assistance they could render.*

Most notable points of difference between the circumstances of girls' schools and those of boys' schools.

Before entering on a description of the schools themselves, several facts ought to be adverted to which make the education of girls differ from that of boys, and differ chiefly for the worse. Among people in easy circumstances a much greater number of girls than of boys are educated at home by resident or visiting governesses. The private schools to which they resort are, as a rule, smaller than those for boys, being often so small that the schoolmistress is virtually in the position of a private governess. Mothers belonging to what is called the lower middle-class are able to make their daughters useful at home; they can help in the house-work and mind the baby, whereas boys of the same age are only, as they express it, "a plague and a worrit." Hence it often happens that girls are not sent to school till long after the age when systematic instruction ought to have begun, and that they are kept away upon slight grounds. Their health either is or is supposed to be frailer than that of boys, and hence less work is required from them, and

* They frequently inquired whether it was intended to send round examiners at stated periods, expressing their wish that this should be done.

a slight ailment or a wet day becomes more frequently an excuse for absence from school. Above all, parents have an entirely different set of views and wishes respecting their daughters from those which guide them in conducting the education of their sons. Obvious as this difference is, it may be proper to show in some detail how it works.

Feelings of parents respecting the education of their sons and of their daughters respectively.

There are three motives by which a parent is or may be influenced in determining how much he will pay for his son's education, choosing a school for him, and settling what branches he shall learn. The first is an appreciation of the worth of education as training the mind and moulding the character. The second is a deference to the opinion of persons of his own rank, which requires boys to stay a certain number of years at school, be taught certain things there, and have a certain sum of money expended upon them. The third is a desire that his son should get on in the world and should therefore have the knowledge and the sharpness that may help him to do so. Of these three the last is no doubt (as applied to the case of boys) the most generally diffused and the most powerful. But in the case of girls it does not exist. Except those daughters of small shopkeepers and publicans who are put on market-day behind the counter, and those daughters of poor professional men who must go out as governesses, there are no girls to whom knowledge is of any practical service at all. The first motive, which influences very few parents as respects their sons, influences still fewer as respects their daughters. Although the world has now existed for several thousand years, the notion that women have minds as cultivable and as well worth cultivating as men's minds is still regarded by the ordinary British parent as an offensive, not to say a revolutionary, paradox.

It is therefore the second or social motive that practically controls the education of girls. In persons who belong to the poorer commercial class this motive is weak. Among those who account themselves better it has great strength, but it acts only in the direction which an unthinking opinion has worked out for it. Society has agreed to set a high value upon a young lady's music, dancing, and general air of good breeding, and a somewhat lower value upon her French and her skill in drawing and fancy work. These therefore are the arts in which fathers and mothers desire that their daughters should excel. In the case of boys it fortunately happens that the subjects which are most practically useful, such as arithmetic, and those on which custom has set its stamp, such as classics, are also subjects which cannot be learnt to much purpose without being learnt thoroughly, and which furnish, when so treated, an admirable intellectual discipline. This is not the case with those studies (the aforesaid) which form the chief part of a girl's education, some of which have no disciplinary value, while others are so taught as to destroy theirs. It is true that there are other subjects commonly included in the curriculum of a ladies' school—arithmetic geography, history, English grammar, German or some branch of science. But in the eyes of parents these

things are altogether subordinate to the accomplishments, and though they are paid for as a matter of course, no interest is taken in the progress of the children in them, and little inquiry made as to the capacity of the teacher to whom they are entrusted. As some one put it to me: "Boys are educated for the world and girls for the drawing-room."

The wishes of parents are so important an element in the problem of educational improvement that I missed no opportunity of inquiring from schoolmistresses their experience in the matter. Their answer was invariably the same. "Mothers are acutely "sensitive to anything which may affect their daughters' social "success, whether it be the 'selectness' of the school, or its "situation, or the fame of the music and dancing masters. They "are profoundly indifferent to their diligence (as a moral quality) "or to their progress in the more solid branches of an English "education. If a girl begins to get interested in the school-work, "and is seen in the evening busy over her theme, her mother "comes to me and says, 'Now, Miss ——, you must not make "Augusta a blue.' If I report that another does not try to "improve herself in arithmetic, the mother says, 'Well you know "I am anxious about her music, of course; but it really doesn't "matter about her arithmetic, does it? Her husband will be able "to do all her accounts for her, you know.' I find people who "willingly pay 2*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.* for 12 dancing lessons, grumbling if "they are asked to pay 3*l.* 3*s.* 0*d.* for a quarter's English, includ-"ing all the regular school work. To those of us who are con-"scientious and wish to do the best for the mind and character "of our pupils, school-keeping is a thankless and troublesome "task. To those who are content to float with the stream, "putting the names of eminent 'accomplishment' masters in the "prospectus, and leaving the rest of the teaching to ill-paid "governesses, it is an easy one. It is not pleasant to bear the "whims of and submit to be thwarted by the very people for "whose children you are trying to do your best. But it is much "more painful to find them filling their children's minds with the "notion that their education is not to be of any use to them, and "that they need not care whether or not they profit by it, so long "as they possess those showy qualities which are supposed to "command the admiration of the other sex."

Representations made by the schoolmistresses.

Account of the Schools visited.

The girls' schools which I saw admit, much better than do the boys' schools, of being described as a whole, for they are, almost without exception, private adventure schools, and they have very much the same general character in different parts of the country. At the same time it may be remarked that there are two types among them, under one or other of which most may be ranged, the cheap day-school, and the genteel school in which, although day-scholars are not excluded, the chief object of the mistress is to procure boarders. A third type, specimens whereof abound in the neighbourhood of London as well as in Brighton, Clifton, and

Girls' schools in Lancashire fall into two classes.

other such places—the costly and fashionable boarding school—is in Lancashire so scantily represented that it may almost be left unnoticed. A rough notion of the distinction between the two former types may be conveyed by saying that the fees of the genteel schools (which I call class A.) range from 10*l.* upwards (for day scholars), and that French and music are essentials, learnt by every pupil; while the cheap schools (class B.) charge fees of from 3*l.* 0*s.* 0*d.* to 8*l.* 0*s.* 0*d.*, and regard French and music more or less in the light of luxuries.

Number of girls' as compared with boys' schools.

1. *Number.*—The exact number of schools it was, of course, impossible to ascertain, because some are very small and unpretending, unnoticed even by the directories, while of many others it is difficult to say whether they ought to be reckoned as schools for the middle or for the lower class. I found reason to believe, however, that they are at last twice as numerous as the boys' schools; and that hardly any town of 3,000 people and upwards is without one or more. There are in the county at least 470, and probably many more than 500.* Their existence in any given spot does not seem to be determined by the number of children to be instructed so much as by the number of ladies without other occupation who desire to support themselves in this way. I found cases of towns with a population of 5,000 or 6,000 and five girls' schools, and other towns of from 20,000 to 30,000 where there seemed to be only two or three. It was, therefore, very difficult to discover any fixed relation between the demand and the supply.

They are usually small schools.

2. *Size.*—As one might expect from their greater number, girls' schools are usually smaller than boys'. Of those which returned answers to the forms of inquiry which you directed me to issue, the average size of schools of class A. (the more expensive schools) is 26, and of class B. as nearly as possible the same.† As a good many excused themselves from making returns on the ground that their school was too small to deserve the attention of the Commission, and as a certain number of others were so small as to escape notice altogether, the real average is, no doubt, considerably lower, probably not exceeding 20. A great many, especially of the cheaper sort, consist of six or eight children only, taught by a single mistress, not in a class but singly, one after the other. The cause of this is to be found partly in what was mentioned above—the abundance of persons who wish to make a little money by teaching, but have neither the capital nor the enterprise which would enable them to start a school on a great scale, and partly in the belief so common among parents that their child is better attended to as one of a small than as one of a large number. The results, it need not be said, are in almost every respect unfortunate.

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* A certain number of these, but what exact number I have no means of determining, are virtually schools for the labouring class. Probably about 400 are used by the middle classes, *i.e.*, the pupils remain till 14 and pay from 3*l.* per annum upwards. About 180 girls' schools made answers more or less complete to the forms of inquiry which you directed me to issue.

† My own impression would have been that the cheap schools are, on an average, smaller than the more expensive ones; and this may possibly be correct, as many of the smaller ones did not make returns.

3. *Buildings and Accommodation.*—As the number of pupils in the vast majority of Lancashire girls' schools does not reach 30, and in very few exceeds 50, it is unnecessary to say that the classes are not taught in buildings erected for the purpose. I can just remember one or two instances in which a successful or speculative schoolmistress had built a room expressly for school purposes. Everywhere else the school was held in a private house, in the different apartments of which, upstairs and downstairs, the various classes were gathered under governesses or masters. In the case of the cheaper schools, it frequently happened that these rooms were quite too small for the number of children, and the atmosphere was consequently close, almost to suffocation. An instance occurs to me of a cheap Liverpool school (otherwise far from bad) where one could hardly move through the low-roofed chamber, so thick was the press of girls, and the mistress, on being asked whether she did not think it would be better to open the windows, answered that she had never found the room disagreeable. The small private boys' schools are perhaps no better, but boys spend a greater part of their time in the open air and are perhaps less apt to suffer from ailments of the chest than girls are. As regards the more expensive schools, I seldom found any overcrowding, although there was an unreasonable dread of fresh air. The want of buildings expressly designed for school purposes is, however, an injury to them in another way, for it makes a systematic organization of the school more difficult, and it prevents the head mistress from exercising an efficient supervision over her assistant teachers. Even the absence of desks* in which ink bottles are fixed, and where school books, papers, and copy books may be kept, as well as the want of a definite room or a definite place in the room where each class is habitually to assemble, helps to produce that irregularity and slovenliness which is so frequent a fault in girls' schools. School houses and furniture.

As respects boarding accommodation, I was led to believe that there is no very great reason to complain of schools for girls. In the more expensive schools the sleeping rooms were usually large enough or nearly large enough for the number of girls placed in them, and even in the cheaper ones I did not see that squalor and confusion and reckless overcrowding which has been remarked upon as disgracing so many of the cheap boarding schools for boys. But as the schools which I saw were no doubt favourable specimens of their class, I cannot presume to say that evils similar to those of the boys' schools may not exist in other boarding schools which I did not happen to come across.

4. *Cost.*—A reference to the table given on pages 796–799 will show what are the charges made for the board and for the education of girls in the Lancashire schools. This table is not so complete as could have been wished, for the school- Scale of charges in day and boarding schools.

* It still sometimes happens, especially of course in the cheaper schools, that the girls sit upon forms or benches not furnished with backs. Many teachers, however, are alive to the evils of this practice; and in most of the more genteel schools chairs and not forms are used.

Table of Charges in Day Schools for Girls.

A.—'Genteel' Schools.

	Fees.	Occupation of Parents.*	Per-centage learning: French.	Instrumental Music.	Drawing.	German.	Remarks.
a.	General work—under 8, 4*l.* 4*s.*; over 8, 8*l.* 8*s.* Extras, French, German, Italian, harp, each 4*l.* 4*s.*	A 25 B 70 C 5 (?)	30	70	86	2	In a large country town; also a boarding school.
b.	General work—under 10, 3*l.*; over 10, 4*l.* 4*s.* Extras: French £3 0 0; Music 5 0 0; Do. by master 6 6 0; Drawing 3 0 0	A 30 B 70	45	65	22	5	In a country village; also a boarding school. Three-fifths of the children under 14.
c.	General work—4*l.* 4*s.* (all ages) Extras, French, music, drawing, each 4*l.* 4*s.*	A 42 B 58	35	42	11	—	In a small town on the verge of a mining district. Two-thirds of the children are under 14.
d.	General work—under 8, 3*l.*; over 8, 4*l.* 4*s.* Extras, French, music, drawing, each 4*l.* 4*s.*	A 10 B 90	18	53	14	—	In a watering-place on the sea coast. A few boarders also taken.
e.	General work—under 10, 4*l.* 4*s.*; over 10, 6*l.* 6*s.* Extras: French £2 2 0; Music 4 4 0; Do. (advanced pupils) 8 8 0	A 40 B 60	76	33	14	3½	In a manufacturing town. Four-elevenths of the girls under 14: nearly one half boarders.
f.	General work—under 10, 8*l.* 8*s.*; over 10, 10*l.* 10*s.* Extras: Science and Euclid £4 4 0; Languages 6 6 0; Music 8 8 0 to 10 10 0; Drawing 6 6 0; Dancing and drill 4 4 0	All merchants.	Not stated, but probably all.	Do.	—	—	In one of the better suburbs of Liverpool. About half the pupils boarders; about three-fifths over 14 years of age.
g.	General work—under 8, 6*l.* 6*s.*; over 12, 12*l.* 12*s.* Extras: French £4 4 0; Music 6 6 0; Drawing 6 6 0; German 4 4 0; Dancing 4 4 0	A 48 B 52	70	67	17	—	A day school in Liverpool, in the suburbs. Seven-tenths of the girls under 14.
h.	General work—under 12, 6*l.* 6*s.*; over 12, 8*l.* 8*s.* Extras: French £4 4 0; Music 6 6 0 to 8 8 0; Drawing 4 4 0; Dancing 6 6 0	A 40 B 60	11	60	—	—	A school of 28 girls, four of them boarders; in the outermost suburbs of Liverpool.
i.	General work—under 8, 6*l.* 6*s.*; 8 to 12, 8*l.* 8*s.*; over 12, 10*l.* 10*s.* Extras: French £4 4 0; German 6 6 0; Music 4 4 0 to 8 8 0; Drawing 1 10 0; Singing 2 2 0	A 32 B 68	41	37	39	4	A large day-school, not far from the centre of Liverpool.
j.	General work—under 10, 12*l.* 12*s.*; 10 to 12, 21*l.*; 12 to 14, 26*l.* 5*s.*; over 14, 31*l.* 10*s.*, including all subjects except instrumental music, German, Italian, dancing, and water-colour painting, which are charged for by the visiting masters.	Nearly all A.	90	90	90	20	In the suburbs of Manchester. One-sixth of the pupils boarders; about four-sevenths over 14 years of age.

* A denotes children of professional men, merchants, and persons of independent means; B, children of shopkeepers, clerks, and farmers; C, children of labourers.

Table of Charges in Day Schools for Girls.

B.—Cheaper Schools.

	Fees.	Occupation of Parents.	Per-centage learning: French.	Music.	Drawing.	German.	Remarks.
a.	General work—under 9, 4*d.*; above 9, 6*d.* a week. Extras; none.	* A — B 40 C 60	—	—	—	—	An elementary day school in a manufacturing town conducted by a trained mistress.
b.	General work—under 10, 1*l.* 4*s.*; over 10, 2*l.* 2*s.* Extras; none.	A — B 80 C 20	—	—	—	—	A tradespeople's day school under one mistress; children all under 14.
c.	Under 10,— Reading and sewing - - £1 10 0 Do. with writing - - 1 14 0 Do. with arithmetic - 2 2 0 Over 10, 2*l.* 10*s.*; over 12, 3*l.* 4*s.*	A 12 B 70 C 18	—	—	—	—	In a large manufacturing town, two-thirds of the children under 10: two-thirds learn arithmetic, one-third geography and history.
d.	General work—4*l.* 4*s.* - - - - Extras { French - - - £2 2 0 Music - - - 4 4 0	A 10 B 80 C 10	30	40	—	—	A small school (14 girls) in a country village, kept by a widow lady partly for the sake of her three daughters; one or two boarders taken.
e.	General work—under 12, 4*l.* 4*s.*; over 12, 6*l.* 6*s.* Extras { French - - - £4 4 0 Music - - - 4 4 0 Drawing - - - 2 2 0 Dancing - - - 5 0 0	Tradespeople, a few prof. men.	6	6	9	—	A day school in Liverpool, with 35 children, of whom only 3 are over 14.
f.	General work—under 10, 2*l.*; over 10, 3*l.* Extras { French - - - £2 0 0 Music - - - 3 0 0 Drawing - - - 2 0 0	A — B 93 C 5	—	16	—	—	A rough but not inefficient day-school in one of the north-eastern parts of Liverpool, inhabited by captains and mates of vessels, pilots, engineers, and so forth. Of 73 girls only 3 above 14.
g.	General work—under 8, 2*l.* 2*s.*; over 8, 4*l.* 4*s.* Extras { French - - - £2 2 0 Music - - - 4 4 0 Drawing - - - 2 0 0	A 22 B 78	14	18	—	—	A school lying in a fairly respectable part of Manchester, chiefly resorted to by Roman Catholic girls. Out of 46 only 1 is over 14 years of age.

* A denotes children of professional men, merchants, and persons of independent means; B, children of shopkeepers, clerks, and farmers; C, children of labourers.

Table of Charges in Boarding Schools for Girls.

Class A.—'Genteel' Schools.

Copies of School Bills.		Remarks.
Board and instruction - -	£30 9 0	A day and boarding school in a town, used by farmers, shopkeepers, professional men, and the minor manufacturers. The bill given is the highest, the average being stated as 55*l.* 6*s.* 3*d.*; the lowest as 35*l.* 3*s.* 5*d.* Here the extras exceed the principal charge (which is low considering the quality of the instruction).
Music - - - -	4 4 0	
Chalk drawing - - -	4 4 0	
Harp - - - -	2 2 0	
French - - - -	4 4 0	
German - - -	2 2 0	
Use of piano - - -	1 0 0	
Do. of globes - - -	0 2 0	
New music - - -	7 7 0	
Books - - - -	2 18 3	
Carried forward -	£58 12 3	

Brought forward	£58	12	3
Pens	0	5	0
Exercise and copy books	0	14	0
Drawing materials	4	0	7
Laundress	3	0	0
Offertory	0	13	3
Materials for fancy work	2	5	11
Dancing	1	1	0
Total	£70	12	0

Board and instruction	£52	10	0
French lessons	6	6	0
Music do.	6	6	0
Use of piano	1	0	0
Seat in church	1	6	0
Services of laundress	4	0	0
Stationery	0	14	0
Drilling (one quarter)	0	5	6
Total	£72	7	6

A Manchester school, receiving day scholars also; taught by three ladies, and visiting masters for French, vocal music (one hour a week), English grammar and literature (one hour a week), arithmetic and natural philosophy (two hours a week).

One year's school pension	£40	0	0
Music master	8	8	0
Singing and dancing master	10	10	0
Class for harmony and singing	2	2	0
School stationery, books, music, and needlework	16	10	6
Total	£77	10	6

A convent school, receiving no day pupils. The bill given is its highest; the average is reported as 54*l.* 12*s.*; the lowest as 36*l.* 8*s.* 6*d.*

Board and tuition in English and French	£57	15	0
Pianoforte	10	10	0
Class singing	3	3	0
Drawing	6	6	0
Drawing materials	1	8	7
Lectures and Euclid	4	4	0
Dancing and calisthenics	4	4	0
Drill	1	1	0
Stationery	1	0	0
Use of school books	2	2	0
Do. of piano	1	1	0
Music	2	1	0
Box of colours	1	11	6
Pew rent	1	1	0
Laundress	4	4	0
Three charts	0	6	0
Total	£101	18	1

A day and boarding school not far from Liverpool, used chiefly by merchants and professional men. The extras and minor charges, it will be seen, almost equal the principal charge. Average bill, 84*l.*; lowest bill, 63*l.*

Copies of School Bills.			
Board and tuition	£52	0	0
Singing	8	8	0
Music	8	8	0
Accompanying lessons	4	10	0
German	8	8	0
French	6	6	0
Drawing	6	6	0
Dancing	6	6	0
English composition and arithmetic	4	4	0
Class singing	2	2	0
Seat at church	0	10	0
Laundress	4	4	0
Total	£111	12	0

Remarks.

A boarding school on the sea coast, used by professional men, merchants, and manufacturers; 65 per cent. of them resident in Lancashire; 35 per cent. in Yorkshire. A resident German governess, and visiting masters for accomplishments, arithmetic, mathematics, and English composition. Lowest bill, 69*l.* 16*s.*

Class B.—Cheaper Schools.

Copies of School Bills.				Remarks.
Board and tuition	£26	6	0	The average bill of a day and boarding school in the suburbs of Liverpool, used by tradespeople and farmers. Taught by three sisters; assistants receive education in return for their services. Not every pupil has a separate bed.
Piano and seat in church	1	0	0	
Laundry	1	12	0	
Dancing	0	15	0	
Collection	0	0	6	
Fires	0	1	0	
Fancy work	0	5	9	
Books and sundries	1	1	5	
Total	£31	1	8	

Board and tuition	£26	5	0	A day and boarding school in one of the roughest manufacturing towns. The lowest bill is stated thus:
Music	2	2	0	
French	3	3	0	
Use of piano	1	0	0	
Materials for work	1	0	0	
Stationery	0	10	0	
Pew rent	1	1	0	
	0	10	0	
Laundress	2	2	0	
Total	£37	13	0	

Board and tuition	£15	15	0
Books	1	1	0
Materials	0	5	0
Stationery	0	15	0
Pew rent	0	10	0
Laundress	2	0	0
Total	20	6	0

Board and tuition in English	£26	5	0	A day and boarding school in one of the smaller manufacturing towns. This is the highest bill; the average (from which all extras are omitted) is stated at 25*l.* The children are those of Wesleyan ministers, small manufacturers, and shopkeepers.
Music, French, and drawing	12	12	0	
Laundress	3	3	0	
Pew rent	0	8	0	
Use of piano	0	5	0	
Total	£42	13	0	

Board and instruction	£31	10	0	A day and boarding school in the outermost suburbs of Liverpool, used by professional men and shopkeepers. Two visiting masters for music and dancing; apparently no other assistants to the two ladies who teach the school.
Music	4	4	0	
Seat at church	1	0	0	
Quarter's dancing	1	11	6	
Laundress	3	3	0	
Books, &c.	1	15	0	
Materials for needlework	0	10	0	
Trains, &c.	0	15	0	
Total	£44	8	6	

Board and tuition	£30	0	0	A boarding school in the country, filled by the children of shopkeepers, the minor manufacturers, land agents, and so forth; most of them from the Lancashire towns. The bill given is the highest. The average is 42*l.* 11*s.* 9*d.*; the lowest, 36*l.* 2*s.*
French	5	5	0	
Music	5	5	0	
Singing	5	5	0	
Drawing	5	5	0	
Drilling	1	10	0	
Laundress	3	3	0	
Quarter's dancing	1	6	3	
Drawing materials	1	0	0	
Pieces of music	0	18	0	
Use of books and piano	1	0	0	
Total	£59	17	3	

mistresses who made returns to your forms of inquiry very often omitted to fill up that most vital form which related to the fees; sometimes merely because they found it irksome, but sometimes also, as I am informed, because they thought it had something to do with the income tax, and did not quite know to what they might not subject themselves by a statement of their emoluments. The omission, however, is practically of little consequence, for I find it easy to ascertain the average cost of each description of education supplied. In the case of the cheaper schools (class B.) the fees do not differ from those exacted in boys' schools of the same social grade. A plain English education, *i.e.*, reading, spelling, writing, arithmetic, needlework, and the rudiments of history, geography, and English grammar may be had for 3*l.* to 6*l.* per annum.* French when (as usually in schools of this class), an extra, is from 2*l.* 2*s.* to 4*l.* 4*s.* per annum, more frequently the latter. Instrumental music, also an extra, generally stands at 4*l.* 4*s.* to 6*l.* 6*s.* per annum, though in two or three schools I have found it offered for less. German, drawing, dancing, and so forth, when taught in schools of this rank are charged about 4*l.* 4*s.* each, of course extra. The two former are rarely taken; the latter is often learnt in a dancing academy. Thus, speaking generally, we may say that girls belonging to what is called the lower middle class receive a plain education for the same fees as those paid by their brothers in private schools, about 5*l.* per annum. When accomplishments (among which French may be reckoned) are added, their education becomes at once more expensive, rising to 8*l.* or even 10*l.*

In schools of higher social pretensions (those classed under "A.") there is a more considerable difference between the charges of boys' and of girls' schools. In both the ordinary branches of instruction (including Latin and mathematics in the case of the former, French of the latter) may be had at from 8*l.* to 12*l.* or 16*l.* per annum; but custom requires girls to take "accomplishments" which boys escape, and these run up the cost of a girl's schooling to 20*l.* or even 30*l.* per annum. If expensive masters are taken for vocal music or to give finishing lessons on the pianoforte, the parent may have to pay as much as 40*l.* The average scale of charges may be represented as follows:—

	£	s.	
English (including reading, writing, history, geography, grammar, and arithmetic)	10	10	
French	4	4	to 6*l.* 6*s.*
German or Italian (the latter seldom or never taken)	4	4	
Latin (seldom taken)	4	4	
Drawing, use of the globes, natural history, astronomy, and so forth (as it may happen)	4	4	to 6*l.* 6*s.*†
Vocal music	4	4	(and upwards.)
Instrumental music	6	6	(and upwards.)
Dancing and callisthenics	4	4	(and upwards.)

* I remember a case in which the fee for these subjects (with the addition of singing) was only 1*l.* 10*s.* per annum. But this was a school connected with a Nonconformist congregation, and so the mistress, although allowed to settle her own terms and make her own profits, sat rent free, and could therefore afford to charge less than most of her compeers.

† Usually taught by the occasional lectures of a visiting master.

In the case of the last three items I have stated the minimum fee, it being impossible to give an average, because the maximum varies according to the eminence of the master employed and may be 8*l.* 8*s.*, or 12*l.*, or even more. Probably, taking one day school with another, a merchant or well-to-do professional man in Liverpool or Manchester, pays about 18*l.* per annum for his daughter's education from her eighth to her twelfth birthday, and about 35*l.* from her twelfth till her seventeenth, in all pretty nearly 250*l.* for nine years.*

Average cost of education in a genteel school higher for a girl than for a boy.

These charges seem moderate compared with those of the most fashionable London or Brighton schools; but they make a girl's education nearly twice as expensive as that far more solid and practically useful education which a boy receives. Two causes may be assigned for this difference. In the first place, accomplishments, for which (and not for the more solid subjects of instruction) so large a price is paid, are fancy articles, and as such, costly. People who make pretensions to gentility are ashamed to economise in them, having a nervous fear that their daughter may be placed at a social disadvantage by not having had all the masters who happen at the moment to be in fashion. Secondly, the accomplishments are taught by teachers (male or female) who go about from school to school, getting five or six pupils here, eight or nine there; they fix their own terms, and are paid directly by the parents, although through the medium of the schoolmistress, who sometimes receives part of the fee as a sort of commission. Since the transaction is at their own risk, they having nothing assured to them by her, and since they desire to be recompensed for the time and trouble spent in coming, perhaps, from some distance, to spend an hour or two only in the school, their charges are higher than would be the case if they were parts of the permanent school staff, as they would be if the schools were much larger, or if a greater number of pupils required their instruction. Thus the number of competing schools and the small size of each becomes one of the causes why a girl's education is dearer than a boy's.

In the Lancashire boarding schools the charge for board alone, exclusive of instruction, ranges from 20*l.* up to 50*l.* per annum; sometimes of course with extras which make it several pounds more. In the cheap schools, where the day pupils are taken at 5*l.* or 6*l.* per annum, and where little stress is laid upon French, music, and gentility, the average terms for boarders are 25*l.* or 30*l.* per annum; so that a girl's whole school expenses, teaching and extras included, need not come to much more than 40*l.* a year.

In the more fashionable schools board alone costs from 40 to 50 guineas; extras are heavier, and the entire bill for a year of a young lady of seventeen may mount as high as 105*l.* Higher than this it does not seem—in Lancashire—to go, and its average is probably little over 70*l.* This is more than a father would have,

* The cause of the increase is that during the last two or three years the pupil who had previously been taught music (vocal and instrumental) by a governess usually takes lessons from a visiting master, and sometimes hears lectures, for which another visiting master has to be paid.

except in extreme cases, to pay for his son's board and education in almost any Lancashire school; but it is of course far less than is charged in the more showy ladies' boarding schools of the south of England.

5. *Time spent.*—From an examination of the returns furnished by nearly 130 schools (the rest not having answered these questions in your forms of inquiry) it appears that the average number of weeks in the year during which a school is at work is 41·75; and the average number of hours per week during which the girls are in school 28·35; giving an average of a little more than 1,183 school hours during the year.

Educational arrangements.

6. *Organization.*—As compared with boys' schools, girls' schools can scarcely be said to be organized at all. There is a certain number of classes, or of girls learning particular things, but there is neither any definite course of studies nor any grouping of classes, so as to play into one another. In the smaller and cheaper schools one often finds one mistress alone, or a mistress aided by a young person—perhaps a sister, perhaps a sort of apprentice—teaching every subject to every class in one or at most two rooms. The

Want of order and system in the small schools;

15 or 20 girls are of all ages, from 8 to 16; it is impossible to work them together, and impossible to keep all employed under one teacher; hence half or two-thirds are left to their own devices while the rest are saying their lessons, and thus contract dawdling and listless habits, which would destroy the effect even of far better teaching than they receive. There is no system in these little schools; things go as chance or the momentary convenience of the mistress directs; the pupil's progress is not marked and registered, for she is never examined, and there is no higher class for her to enter; the total number is too small to excite not merely emulation but any spirit or sense of movement.

in the larger and especially in the more expensive schools.

Although this want of order and want of briskness may be remarked in the larger schools also, it is in them by no means so conspicuous. Still their organization is somewhat simpler and looser than that of boys' schools of the same social rank. There is no classification by departments; no one subject made central, so that the promotion of a pupil should be determined mainly or wholly by her progress in it. The classes are usually small, and the teaching tends to become individual rather than collective, *i.e.*, ten or a dozen girls are not handled as a class, but as so many separate pupils who happen to be learning the same thing. A class is not a unity but a fortuitous concurrence of atoms.

The staff of teachers.

In most of the larger, and in all the more expensive establishments, the teaching staff consists of two sets of persons—governesses (mostly resident) and visiting masters. Of the former, among whom the mistress may be reckoned, one is usually a foreigner, and undertakes very little except the French, possibly also the German classes, and part of the music teaching. The others are English, and have seldom or never any special subject allotted to them; they take the younger children in all subjects, attend to such trivial matters as arithmetic, history, and English grammar, and spend the rest of their time in superin-

tending that torturing of the piano which goes on unremittingly all day long. The masters on the other hand, and occasionally a visiting female teacher for music and dancing, come generally for an hour or two in the day, once, twice, or (rarely) thrice a week. Most important and most highly paid is the music master, who gives lessons of a quarter or half an hour to each in succession of the most advanced girls, and whose charge, as has been said already, is usually a separate item, paid to him by the parents through the mistress. Then there are masters for French and for German, coming probably twice or thrice a week, and taking the higher classes only; a master for drawing coming once or twice a week; and in a few of the schools in or near Liverpool and Manchester, a master who gives lectures once a week on some branch of natural history or natural science; or possibly, though very seldom, on mathematics, or on history and English literature. More rarely still, that is to say, in five or six schools only out of the whole number in the county, one finds a master teaching arithmetic, or Latin, or English composition.

Arrangement of the subjects taught.

The distribution of a girl's time upon the different parts of her school work is regulated by an elaborate time-table, similar to those described in the case of boys' schools, but even more complex, as it is the fashion for a girl to go through the form of learning two or three dozen subjects at once. After examining a good many of those supplied by schoolmistresses, I found the general result, in the case of the more expensive schools (Class A.) to be as follows:

Music is the only subject on which a girl is occupied every day.

French comes twice or thrice a week, rarely four times.

Writing and arithmetic come twice a week, rarely three times.

History comes thrice a week, but then it is not the same history. As a rule English history comes once, ancient (Greek or Roman, or both) once a week, modern (usually French) also once a week.

Geography, English grammar, and German are each of them usually taken up twice a week, more rarely once only.

Drawing comes once or twice a week.

A variety of branches of science (so called), the most conspicuous whereof is the well known "use of the globes" come once a week each.

That is to say, a girl passes so incessantly from subject to subject, and spends so small a part of her whole available time upon each, that her mind cannot lay firm hold on or concentrate itself upon any. German, let us suppose, comes on Tuesdays from 10 till 11 a.m., and on Saturdays from 9 till 10. Everyone knows how much pains and what close attention are needed to master the intricacies of German grammar. But the girl after her Tuesday morning's lesson has her head full of all sorts of other matters during the rest of Tuesday, during Wednesday, and Thursday and Friday, and when, late on Friday evening, or early on Saturday morning, she begins to prepare Saturday morning's lesson,

what was learnt on Tuesday has been well nigh forgotten, or is remembered in that careless indeterminate way which is the parent of inaccuracy and slovenliness. Under such circumstances sound mental discipline and substantial progress in the language are not to be hoped for. And when a subject comes, as so many subjects do, only once a week, the case is even worse.

There are two other remarks respecting the distribution of time which it may be proper to add here. The first is, that music not only engrosses an exorbitant share of time and labour, but is so managed as to secure the maximum of injury to other subjects of study. For as practising goes on all day long, and as there are few pianos and many girls, each has to leave the class in which she may happen to be when her turn for practising comes, or when the music or singing master arrives to give his lesson. The second is that it is a common practice in girls' schools, more especially in boarding schools, for lessons to be learnt during school hours, and it may even be, immediately before they are said. The consequence is that they are learnt hurriedly and forgotten quickly.

Nature of the Instruction given.

Nature of the instruction given.

The extent to which each of the more important subjects of instruction is taught is shown in the table given on page 805, although shown in a form more favourable than the truth. For the returns on which this table is founded were more frequently made by the better than by the inferior schools, and I had reason to know that in many cases subjects which are entered as taught are taught in a merely nominal fashion. There is said to be a class in pneumatics, or in Italian literature, because it is the theory of the school that there should always be such a class. But as a matter of fact one finds no girl studying either pumps or Dante.

The facts which appear by this table may be summed up as follows.—

Greek and Italian are not taught in the Lancashire girls' schools; Latin to a very small, and mathematics to an infinitesimally small extent.

English literature, ancient history, physical geography, and some one or more branches of natural history or natural science are taught (though often nominally only) in most of the more expensive schools.

French is taught wherever the total of the annual school fees (for day pupils) exceeds 10*l.*; German where it exceeds 15*l.**

Instrumental music goes, perhaps, a little yet not much lower, socially, than French does. Some schools charging no more than from 6*l.* or 8*l.* per annum for all subjects, profess to teach it; but it is only where the charge rises above 10*l.* that any considerable proportion of the pupils learn it.

Geography, English history, and English grammar are taught in all but the very poorest schools; sometimes alone, some-

* There are of course exceptions on both sides, but this may be taken as the rule.

Table showing the Instruction given in Girls' Schools.

		Total.	Arithmetic.	English Grammar.	Geography.	History.	Latin.	French.	German.	Italian.	Mathematics.	Physics.	Natural History.	Instrumental Music.	Drawing.	Dancing.	Needlework.
Lancashire (except the two great towns)	Number of Schools teaching each subject	42	42	40	42	40	6	22	11	1	2	1	12	30	22	17	36
	Number of Girls learning it	1,121	950	805	818	717	39	266	53	2	8	12	174(?)	397	261	232	749
Manchester	Number of Schools teaching	14	14	14	14	14	4	10	2	?	?	3	8	12	10	7	12
	Number of Girls learning	445	356	384	337	291	46	174	24	?	?	27	189	170	179	100	303
Liverpool	Number of Schools teaching	26	26	26	26	25	1 (?)	16	5	1	?	3	8	20	11	7	18
	Number of Girls learning	1,046	955	771	774	662	6 (?)	185	26	4	?	127	264(?)	262	290	83	822
Total	Number of Schools teaching	82	82	80	82	79	11	48	18	2 (?)	2 (?)	7	28	62	43	31	66
	Number of Girls learning	2,612	2,261	1,960	1,979	1,670	91	625	103	6 (?)	8 (?)	166	627(?)	829	730	415	1,874

Per-centage of the Total Number of Girls in Schools making Returns who are learning each Subject.

Arithmetic.	English Grammar.	Geography.	History.	Latin.	French.	German.	Italian.	Mathematics.	Physics.	Natural History.	Instrumental Music.	Drawing.	Dancing.	Needlework.
86·5	75	77·2	63·9	3	23·9	3·9	Probably about ·2	Probably ·4	6·3 (?)	24 (?)	31·7	27·9	15·8	71·7

REMARKS.

Upon this Table it is necessary to make two or three remarks:—

(1.) The number of girls' schools from which I have received returns is much greater than, in fact about double, that of those given here; but there were not more than 82 whose answers to the Form of Inquiry respecting Instruction were sufficiently full to enable me to use them.

(2.) The very much greater number of Liverpool girls than of Manchester girls respecting whom I possess information is due partly to the greater readiness with which Liverpool schoolmistresses answered your questions, partly to the existence there of one great school (of 300 girls) which supplied full information. There seem to be more private girls' schools in and around Liverpool than at Manchester; possibly a greater proportion of the Manchester girls are educated in Privy Council schools.

(3.) As respects the column headed Latin, I know of several schools where Latin is taught which have not filled up the Form on which this Table is based; but I do not believe that the percentage for the county at large is at all higher than that here given.

(4.) The same remark applies to Italian. Out of the 10,000 girls or more whom we may suppose to be in the private schools of Lancashire, probably not more than, if so many as, 25 are at this moment learning Italian, and almost all of these 25 are in convent schools.

(5.) The same remark applies to mathematics. I know of schools teaching it which do not appear in this Table, but believe that the per-centage for the whole county is not higher than that (·4) given in the Table.

(6.) As respects physics and natural history, especially the latter, no reliance is to be placed upon the Table, since rubbish of all sorts is taught under the name of natural history. Probably half or more of the girls who are returned as learning natural history are really learning the Child's Guide, or some such Catechism.

(7.) As respects drawing, it may be stated that the great majority of those who learn it, learn only to do pencil copies from the flat.

(8.) Generally, it may be said that this Table presents a brighter view of the condition of instruction in girls' schools than the reality justifies; for it is, of course, chiefly the better schools that have made returns, and that, when making them, have answered the Forms of Inquiry fully and clearly. Complete statistics of all the schools in the county would convey a less favourable impression.

times with the addition of science and general information in the shape of Mangnall's Questions, or a sixpenny Catechism of Knowledge.

Time expended upon each subject.

It is of more real consequence to ascertain what proportion of time is spent upon each of these studies. After examining a great number of time tables, I found reason to believe that, taking the number one to represent the total quantity of working time at a girl's disposal (*i. e.* about from 36 to 40 hours per week*), the time spent upon each subject in the more expensive ladies' schools might be approximately stated as follows:—

Subject.	Time spent.
Music	·25
Miscellaneous information†	·15
French	·12
History	·08
Drawing	·065
Arithmetic	·075
German	·045
Geography	·05
Writing	·06
English grammar	·045
Use of the globes	·025
Needlework‡	·035
	1·000

It will be noticed that of the whole available time of a school girl, one-fourth is spent upon music, and one-thirteenth only upon arithmetic. If we were to divide the subjects of instruction into three classes, those which rank as accomplishments, those in which facts only are taught and little or no intellectual training given, and those whose study almost necessarily involves some healthy mental effort, such as arithmetic, English grammar, French, and German, we should find that subjects of the first class occupied considerably more than one-third of a girl's school life; those of the second class about one-third; those of the last class not much more than one-fourth.

In the cheaper schools (Class B.) the range of subjects is much less extensive; but the more solid subjects come off very little better. A great part of the time which is spared from music and French (not often taught in these schools) is given to needlework, plain and ornamental; English grammar and arithmetic receive about three hours per week each; the rest of the time is spent in geography, history, writing, and general information, this last

* Counting in the time spent on preparation. The actual school work, as has been stated above, averages less than 30 hours per week.

† Including chronology, mythology, Mangnall's Questions, astronomy, botany, literature, biography, Greek roots, heraldry, and so forth; all which subjects, with many more of the same kind, I find specified among the subjects of instruction in the schools making returns to the questions of the Commission.

‡ In some schools the proportion of time spent on needlework rises much higher.

being usually conveyed by means of miserable catechisms. When music is taught, it occupies far less time than in the genteel school, perhaps only two or three hours in the week.

Quality of the Instruction given.

A statement of the subjects professed to be taught is of course far enough from conveying any idea of the real value of the teaching. I shall therefore endeavour to describe very briefly the result in the case of each branch of instruction, so far as the examinations which I conducted in the schools visited enabled me to ascertain it. Having already spoken at some length of the methods employed in boys' schools, it will not be necessary here to do more than call attention to such points as seem distinctively to belong to girls' schools.

Reading.

This is one of the few things in which girls' schools are markedly better than boys. There does not seem to be much more direct training in the one case than in the other, so it is left us to suppose that the superiority of the girls is due to their more correct ear, their quicker perception of the meaning of what they read, and that more perfect harmony which seems to exist between their intelligence and its expression in voice, feature, and gesture. Even where they have had no special teaching, they are free from that plodding awkwardness which generally belongs to a Lancashire boy's reading. And in several schools, where the mistresses had accustomed their pupils to read aloud, and had carefully checked any tendency to affectation, the reading was everything that could be desired in point of grace, variety, and expressiveness.

Spelling.

Spelling.

It is a common belief that girls spell much worse than boys do. In the schools which I examined this was not the case; the spelling of the girls was on the whole quite equal to that of boys of the same age, and in the case of several schools deserved the highest commendation.

Writing.

Writing.

The notion still prevails among the lower section of the middle class that the merits of a lady's handwriting are its angularity, the lightness and thinness of the strokes, and a general scratchiness of effect. Hence in most of the cheaper girls' schools, the writing is both illegible and ugly. I found on inspecting the copybooks, that the pupils were often taught to write a clear round hand, like that of boys, until they reached 12 or 13 years of age, from which time on it was thought proper to require them to imitate a saw as closely as possible. In the more expensive schools a bolder, rounder, and altogether better style of hand finds favour; but as girls in these schools spend only about half

the time on their copybooks which their brothers are required to do on theirs, they are seldom found to write equally well.

Arithmetic.

Arithmetic. In all the girls' schools where it was possible to do so, I set an examination paper in arithmetic, giving to the more advanced classes the same questions as were given to the less advanced classes in the boys' schools of the same social rank. With a few brilliant exceptions, the results were most unsatisfactory. It frequently happened that girls of 15 or 16 were pronounced by their teacher unfit to attempt simple questions in fractions or practice or proportion. Very few understood decimals. Scarcely any showed any power of grasping the meaning of questions which deviated ever so slightly from the examples given in the book they worked from.

The schoolmistresses did not generally appear surprised to find their pupils acquit themselves ill in arithmetic. They believe, and the parents—if parents think about the matter at all—share their belief, that girls have for numbers a natural incapacity and a natural hatred, against which it is almost useless, and perhaps not very important, to struggle. This belief seems to be quite without foundation. I found several schools, among which I may particularly mention the Institute girls' school in Liverpool, and two private schools in Manchester, whose names, were it permissible, I should be glad to give, in which the arithmetic was excellent, quite up to the level of that in boys' schools, and where the scholars took an evident pleasure in it. And I received a great deal of testimony from persons whose means of observation qualified them to speak, all tending the same way. So far from being necessarily bad arithmeticians, there is some reason to think that girls, being by nature quicker at most things than boys are, are quicker at figures also, and can go through the common operations of adding, subtracting, and so forth, either mentally or on paper, as easily as boys can. Several persons who admit this may be heard to maintain that girls have less power of abstraction, and are less able to grasp, remember, and apply arithmetical principles. This may or may not be true. But we are not obliged to assume any such cause for their present inferiority in arithmetic, since it is sufficiently accounted for by the quantity and quality of arithmetical teaching which they receive. As has been stated already, arithmetic occupies, in the more expensive schools, not more than one-thirteenth of a girl's time, in the cheaper ones, perhaps one-tenth—that is to say, it comes but twice a week in the former, thrice or at most four times a week in the latter. Then the teaching is generally very poor, slow, lifeless, and unintelligent. It is almost all what is called individual teaching; or, to speak more correctly, there is no teaching but only a languid working of sums; each girl sitting with her book beside her and her slate before her, plodding through the examples of the rules, and making such sense out of the thing as the meagre explanations of the manual enable her to do. Seldom enough among the lower grade of boys'

schools, but still more seldom among girls' schools of any grade, does one find a class working all together—working with briskness, and promptness, and interest—taught, as no book but only skilful oral explanations can teach, what is the meaning of rules, and how to apply to different sets of cases the principles which rules involve and are meant to express.

If there is any truth in the reproach so often made against the education of women—that it leaves them disposed to guess where they ought to reason, with no idea of the value of accuracy and no power of concentrating their attention—this may in a large measure be attributed to the all but universal neglect of so valuable a means of mental discipline as the scientific study of arithmetic supplies.

French.

French. In fashionable schools French is usually taught to the younger children by a resident French, German, or Swiss-born governess, and to the elder ones by a visiting master. It begins when they are seven or eight, and lasts till they leave school at 17 or 18. By that time girls of good abilities can usually translate an ordinary French author with some facility, and turn an easy piece of English into French, which if neither idiomatic nor accurate is at least intelligible. It is quite exceptional to find them able to do more than this; that is to say, to write a theme in French, or to show such a familiarity with words and phrases as would enable them to keep up a conversation for ten minutes. They have learnt the grammatical forms with some care, have gone more than once through syntactical rules (generally over-minute), and have learnt from phrase-books or manuals of conversation a considerable number of idioms, intended for colloquial use. But whether it be the fault of the language, or of the grammars used, or of the teachers, or of the languid intermittent way in which lessons are given, it is certainly rare to find girls whose mind the study of French seems to have done anything to strengthen or train. Plainly, they get less intellectual benefit from it than the average boy gets from Latin; and although they can usually read a French book by the time they leave school, this is no very great result for some nine or ten years work.

German.

German. In ladies' schools, German seems to have quite displaced Italian. It is now taught, and sometimes well taught, in the more fashionable schools; into the cheaper ones (Class B.) it does not penetrate. Schoolmistresses often assured me that they found its study much more serviceable as a means of intellectual discipline than the study of French; but the system on which schools are organized leaves so little time for it that one cannot look for any high proficiency among the pupils. They scarcely ever go far enough to read Schiller without the aid of a dictionary.

Italian.

Italian. I found Italian taught nowhere save in one or two of the boarding schools attached to convents, which, by the kindness of their

respective ladies superior, I was admitted to visit and examine. The sisters in these establishments appeared to teach it—as indeed they teach most things—with care and success. I met in different parts of the county with several highly cultivated ladies who regretted the neglect of Italian, and expressed their belief that both on the score of the literature to which a knowledge of it gave access, and from the greater ease with which girls learn it, it had many claims to be preferred to German. On the other hand, the study of its grammar has less disciplinary value.

English Grammar.

English grammar.

In some six or seven of the more expensive schools, and in a few of the cheaper ones taught by mistresses familiar with the methods of the Government training colleges, English grammar, and more especially what is called grammatical analysis, is remarkably well taught.* Sometimes it was almost impossible to puzzle the girls, and they had an evident pleasure in the exercise which seemed to prove its value. But in four-fifths of the schools, both higher and lower, English grammar means the committal to memory of Lindley Murray, or some one of his less illustrious brethren; and it was surprising to see how little notion even intelligent teachers had of handling the subject in a rational way. I remember the case of one mistress of a flourishing, and on the whole a good school, in the neighbourhood of Manchester, who, on my asking her to examine the class in grammar, began thus: *Q.* "What is English grammar?" *A.* (by two or three girls) "English grammar is the art of speaking and writing "the English language correctly." *Q.* "How many parts has "it?" *A.* "Four; orthography, etymology, syntax, and prosody." "*Q.* "What is orthography?" Answers doubtful, suggesting that it has something to do with letters. Whereupon the mistress explains: "Orthography is derived from two Greek words, and means a writing about letters. What is Etymology?" and so forth, without any idea of getting at the meaning of these long words, much less of explaining the rules that followed. Yet English grammar is one of the few subjects taught in girls' schools by whose means the reasoning, as distinguished from the remembering powers, may really be exercised.

English literature is sometimes lectured upon by a visiting master, and occasionally taught informally by the schoolmistress; it is, however, far from receiving in ladies' schools the attention which it deserves. There are, it need hardly be said, few people whose studies have qualified them to teach it well, or who possess the art of being able to interest their pupils in it, and give them a taste for reading which may abide with them through life.

History.

History.

English history is taught everywhere; Greek and Roman history in some of the cheaper and in all the more ambitious schools; mediæval or modern Continental history in several of the latter. It is managed in three ways. In some two or three of the Manchester

* Among those where it is well taught I may mention the Clergy Daughters' School at Casterton, near Kirkby Lonsdale.

and Liverpool schools masters are brought in who discourse at intervals upon these subjects to the more advanced pupils; or (although this is more rare) the mistress herself expounds the history of a period while the girls take notes. Then a considerable number of schools, probably more than one-half of the whole number, teach either solely or mainly by catechisms or question books, the answers wherein contained, chiefly dealing with dates and such like, are got by rote. The rest adopt a plan similar to that described in the case of boys' schools, using manuals which the children read and are examined on by the governess, and which are frequently made to serve as reading books.

It is hardly necessary to say that the catechism plan is not more disagreeable to its unhappy victims than it is intellectually worthless. I never found on examining girls who had been handled by means of it that they had learnt anything worth knowing. Sometimes they remembered stray facts or dates, but with no apprehension of their meaning or bearing; they would tell you that gunpowder was first used at the battle of Cressy without knowing where Cressy was or who fought the battle, or why it was fought, or what difference the use of gunpowder has made in war. Reading in the manuals is of course better, and might be a fairly satisfactory method if the manuals themselves were not so arid. If history is to be studied to good purpose in schools, it would seem that one of two things ought to be done. If made a regular lesson, it ought to be regularly taught, and that by competent persons, who can explain at length and supplement the text-book from their own sources of information. If, on the other hand, children are left to acquire a knowledge of it from their own reading, the present dull and meagre epitome ought to be replaced by treatises of greater length, written in a more interesting style, and expressly designed to supply those ideas which children do not now bring to the study of history, and the absence of which makes a record of historical facts so often unintelligible to them. There can be no doubt that history is, of all their school subjects, the one which girls, whose imagination is more susceptible than that of boys, find both the easiest and the most agreeable. In several schools it was a real pleasure to examine an advanced class in it, so considerable was the knowledge of the pupils, and so keen the zest with which they entered into it; and such cases made the general worthlessness of what is learnt under the name of history the more lamentable. Both in boys' and in girls' schools most teachers at this moment know just so much history, and no more, as the text-book contains; all they can do, therefore, is to see that their scholars have learnt its words. Hence the teaching of Greek and Roman—I may perhaps add of modern foreign history—is a mere farce in the vast majority of girls' schools, and that of English history very little better in a great many.

Geography.

Girls appear to have a quicker acquisitive, if not a stronger retentive power, than boys have; hence they learn geography Geography.

readily, and seem to like it whenever it is passably well taught. There is nothing to call for special remark in the manner of teaching, except as respects that exalted branch of it which one sees so often mentioned in the prospectuses of ladies' schools, and which is entitled "The Use of the Globes." When requested to examine a class of girls in this, I found it expedient to begin by asking "What is the equator?" Their answer to this, or to any other equally elementary question, usually showed so hazy a comprehension of the rudiments of mathematical geography as to make it unnecessary to proceed further.

Miscellaneous Knowledge.

General information.

Under this head may be comprised all that congeries of subjects, scientific, literary, and historical, which it is the fashion to teach girls by way of making them "well-informed;" that is to say, chronology (usually considered something quite distinct from history), mythology, biography (ancient and modern), literature, lessons on objects, heraldry, architecture, mental philosophy, and the circle of the sciences. It is in this point that the course of education which girls' schools profess to give appears so much more ambitious than that of boys' schools; and it is in this that the vanity and superficiality of their system most plainly appears. Here and there a school may be found in which some one of these subjects is well taught. Cases occur to me in which geology, for instance, or botany, or the elements of chemistry, or English literature, had been handled so as to interest the scholars, and give them what seemed a genuine taste for the subject; but as a rule it is by catechisms and manuals, by books like Brewer's Guide to Science, Blair's Catechism, Eves' Examiner, Maunder's Treasury, the Child's Guide to Knowledge, and so forth, that these things are taught, the pupil being merely required to remember a certain number of detached facts, whose mutual bearing she can have no notion of. Most of these facts—such facts for example as the number of houses burnt in the great fire of London, which I remember to have heard a schoolmistress ask, could be of no manner of use if they were kept in memory; but they are very soon forgotten, and the only result of the time and trouble spent on learning them has been to form in the mind the habit of remembering without understanding. It is a singular proof of the isolation in which schoolmistresses live, and their ignorance of the changes of the world, that Mangnall's Questions, which has become a bye-word of scorn among the more enlightened teachers, is still used as a text-book in a very great number, perhaps in nearly one-half, of the ladies' schools of Lancashire.

Natural Science.

Natural science and natural history, as has just been said, are in most schools taught as parts of "general information" by means of these lamentable catechisms; but in several of those which I visited I found them handled with considerable judgment

and energy, sometimes by the schoolmistress herself, sometimes by a visiting master, who gave lectures and showed experiments once a week. More than once the results, as tested by examination, were highly satisfactory. I remember no instance in which girls had been trained in chemistry in the same thorough way as boys are trained in the Institute schools in Manchester and Liverpool; the difficulties in the way of giving them such training are obvious, although perhaps not insuperable. Botany and geology, however, seem to excite a very lively interest, and are singularly well adapted to cultivate in girls the habit of observation and a love for nature. Their quickness in perceiving similarities and differences enables them to excel in these studies, at least in the simpler parts of them; and it is greatly to be desired that every girl had the opportunity given her of acquiring a taste for them.

Latin.

Latin. A desire to teach Latin is growing among schoolmistresses of the better class, partly for the sake of getting some one subject which, if dealt with at all, must be dealt with thoroughly; partly because private governesses are often asked to give the elements of Latin to the young brothers of the girls whom they teach. In the ten or twelve schools in the county where Latin exists it is only a very few girls, perhaps some 30 or 40 in all, who learn it. Some of these I examined; their performances were generally creditable, quite equal to those of boys who had been working at the subject for the same length of time. If it were not so hard for the schoolmistresses, who are of course themselves but seldom acquainted with Latin, to find people capable of teaching it, the number of girls who learn would increase rapidly.

Greek is not taught in any girls' school in Lancashire.

Mathematics.

Mathematics. Geometry is taught in four or five schools, algebra in one or two only. I was assured by the mistresses (and in one case also by a visiting master) that the girls worked at Euclid with a great deal of spirit, and appeared to receive much general intellectual benefit from it. It was only once or twice that I had an opportunity of examining a class of girls in geometry; on those occasions they acquitted themselves very well, and showed that they understood, and were interested in understanding, the principles of deductive reasoning.

Drawing.

Drawing. I have nothing particular to remark upon the teaching of drawing to girls, except that one often finds it, even more often than in boys' schools, confined to copying from the flat, and that it is perhaps a more fully recognized practice for the drawing-master to "touch up" the works of art which a young lady carries home at the end of each half year with her name written in the corner.

Religious Knowledge.

Religious knowledge.

The remarks made respecting the teaching of this subject to boys (p. 232) equally apply to its condition in girls' schools. Scripture history is possibly somewhat better known, girls naturally interesting themselves in the Bible narrative more than boys do. Where dogma is taught there is the same readiness to repeat forms of words, with the same blank ignorance of their meaning.*

It was rather striking to find, after asking schoolmistress after schoolmistress how she dealt with the religious difficulty, that none of them knew of the existence of any such difficulty. Some teach only Bible history without doctrinal formularies, others teach the doctrine of their own religious body,† and either take their boarders with them to their own place of worship, or send them under charge of a governess to that to which their parents belong.‡ Whatever arrangements it is found necessary to make are amicably made between the parents and the schoolmistress; and the presence of children of different creeds in the same school neither prevents the mistress from giving what teaching she thinks fit, nor creates any feeling of separation or any jealousy among the scholars.

Music.

Music.

I do not presume to pass any criticisms upon the way in which music is taught in the girls' schools of Lancashire, although, in compliance with the wish of the mistresses, I had frequently the pleasure of listening to the playing and singing of their more advanced pupils. The musical taste of Lancashire people is well known, and the performances of these young ladies appeared to me, so far as I could venture to form an opinion, to be in most cases of high excellence. There are, however, two points relating to musical teaching on which I heard opinions expressed which it may be proper to state to you.

Neglect of the grammar of music and harmony.

The first has reference to the method in which music is at present usually taught. I was assured by a great number of competent witnesses that the common way of teaching is not only unscientific but positively irrational and wasteful, and that the best results might be expected from a thorough and really intelligent treatment of the elements of what is called the theory or

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* Even the historical parts of the Bible are very often most imperfectly understood. I remember one day, in questioning some children in the Gospel history, to have asked them who Pontius Pilate was. They answered, "He was the King of the Jews." "No, no," said the teacher, somewhat provoked, "You ought to know better than that. Who was the king of the Jews?" To which they replied, with one voice, "Nebuchadnezzar."

† In Liverpool I found several schools teaching the Shorter Catechism of the Westminster Assembly to all the children, whether Nonconformists or Church of England. In one of these it appeared that the Church of England children learnt not only the Shorter Catechism, but the Church Catechism also, and not long before my visit the first prize for religious knowledge had been gained by a Church of England girl, who had repeated the Shorter Catechism from beginning to end without a mistake, a rather surprising feat of memory.

‡ In the case of one or two schools which I visited, conducted by Unitarian ladies, this latter course was followed as respected girls who belonged to the Church of England.

grammar of music. These benefits they stated to be the three following:

(1.) The learner having a rational clue finds it easier to master the complicated system of musical notation.

(2.) To know the principles on which she has to proceed, and to trace out their applications is a pleasure to the learner, and tends to cultivate the habit of accuracy in playing or singing.

(3.) The scientific teaching of the subject is in itself an excellent means of mental discipline, giving precision and clearness of thought.

Other witnesses, while admitting the two latter merits of instruction in the rudiments of musical theory, doubted the first, and thought a girl's power over the instrument would not be sensibly affected by any scientific instruction. The question is one on which I cannot express any opinion. But having in some few schools found the theory of music taught with much care, I am bound to say that the results upon the intelligence and taste of the pupils—*i.e.*, their pleasure in music of a high order—seemed to be very good. Whether it made much difference to their execution is another affair.

Portentous time and trouble spent upon music.

The second has already been touched upon in speaking of the great amount of money, time, and pains spent upon the teaching of music in ladies' schools. Of all the schoolmistresses I conversed with, there was scarcely one who did not say that a considerable proportion of her pupils showed no taste for music, and would do much better to devote to some other study the time spent upon it. At present music occupies pretty nearly as much of a girl's life as classics do of a boy's. Two hours a day is a very moderate allowance for the time spent in learning the pianoforte (including both lessons and practising), by a girl belonging to the upper middle class, with an average capacity and average fondness for music. This gives 12 hours per week, and 552 hours per year (supposing that during a vacation of 12 weeks the girl practises only one hour daily). At this rate a young lady who having begun music at the age of eight remains at school till eighteen, has in the intermediate space sat before her pianoforte during 5,520 hours,* at a cost to her parents of at least 100*l.* Even if a girl becomes a brilliant performer (I have heard people say) after all this expenditure of time and money, there might be some question as to whether it was spent in the best possible way. But a brilliant performer—that is to say, a girl who has superadded patient labour to a marked natural capacity for music—has probably spent a good deal more than the normal quantity of time and money (let us say 7,000 hours, and 150*l.*, finishing lessons being very costly); and the result in the case of the average girl is that she plays well enough to take her turn at the piano at an evening party, and that, during the first year after her marriage, she amuses herself with going over two or three of her stock pieces in the drawing-room

* The same girl has probably spent about 640 hours upon arithmetic between the age of eight and the age of sixteen (after which age arithmetic is usually dropped).

till her husband comes in from his wine. Then there are also a good many cases in which the girl never learns to play with taste and feeling, never reaches more than that mechanical correctness of execution which gives no pleasure either to herself or to those who listen. In these cases it is mere waste of time to plod away at the piano; in the case of the former and far larger class it is at least worth considering whether the result is worthy of the means taken to procure it.

I understood those whose arguments I am endeavouring to report to admit the desirability of giving to all girls some form of æsthetic cultivation, and to admit also that music is the most generally suitable form such cultivation can take. They thought, however, that the present state of things must be regarded as eminently unsatisfactory.

As to the exact proportion of girls whose taste for music is too slight to make it worth their while to pursue the study seriously, I found some difference of opinion. The general feeling seemed to be that all, or nearly all, girls should be tried at the piano for a year or so, and that at the end of that time* about one-third would do well to give it up.

Discipline and Moral Tone.

Under this head I have very little to state, since these are just the things which it is least possible for a passing visitor to judge of. So far as it was displayed in the behaviour of girls in the schoolroom, the discipline seemed to me usually good, although somewhat laxer than it would have been in a boys' school of the same rank. Girls are of course less noisy and turbulent than boys. On the other hand, they are greatly inclined to talk with one another, and are apt to settle themselves in irregular groups, and to get through the movements from class to class in an indolent way. Governesses are not sufficiently concerned to enforce promptitude in little things; and French governesses in particular often either do not care to check or do not succeed in checking the habit of gossiping. When required to prepare for an examination on paper, girls seem quite thrown off their balance, and have no notion how to set briskly to work. It is much to be desired that they were more frequently subjected to this test by their own teachers, since it could hardly fail to give them more promptness in reproducing their knowledge, and a higher sense of the importance of thoroughness and accuracy.

Rewards and punishments.

Diligence is in almost all schools of the higher and many of the lower grade stimulated by the offer of prize books, and sometimes also by certificates of merit and reports to parents. The nature of the punishments in use will appear from the accompanying table:

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* Some few of my informants thought that this was too short a time to try the experiment in.

TABLE of PUNISHMENTS used in Girls' Schools.*

	Impositions.	Detention.	Bad marks.	Corporal punishment.	No punishment.
Number of schools	38	26	19	7†	6

Several modes of punishment are also reported which cannot well be classed under any of the above heads. In one school, for example, the only penalty, and one which is stated to be perfectly efficacious, is the interdiction from croquet for one, two, or three days. In another, the mistress answers, "I say that I don't love them, that is always enough." In a third, the mistress answers to the question respecting punishments, "The pupils are not per- "mitted to gather the precious fruits of knowledge. When they "are wilfully inattentive, they are requested to leave the room, "and go out to play if they wish to grow up in ignorance. This "is our *severest* punishment." Others similar are described which I forbear to enumerate. The general impression which I received was that discipline is usually mild, the fault of girls being seldom an obstinacy which has to be broken down by violent measures. The difficulty rather is, say the schoolmistresses, to know how to deal with those petty offences which a girl is equally ready to repent of and to repeat, and how to judge the sincerity of those expressions of affection by which real or apparent contrition is usually accompanied.

Difficulties experienced by schoolmistresses in maintaining "tone" among their pupils.

Respecting the moral and social tone of girls' schools, I could ascertain little from direct inspection, while the evidence given by mistresses and former pupils was of course very varying. In the appendix (Answers to questions relating to the education of girls), will be found some interesting remarks upon these matters by ladies of experience. The great difficulties, it seems, with which schoolmistresses have to contend among their pupils are a love of dress and a want of truthfulness. It is hard, one is told, to maintain a sense of honour among them, and the practice of copying from one another in examinations is appealed to as a proof of their deficiency in this regard. So far as my experience goes, boys are quite as much addicted to copying as girls are; and if girls have a less acute sense of honour (which may be doubted), it is because it is less frequently appealed to. There seems reason to believe that in this respect the management of boarding schools is now far better than it was some twenty or thirty years ago. Espionage is generally discredited; girls are accustomed to mix with their teachers on more easy and friendly terms than formerly; and they are not so much harassed by petty and tiresome rules, requiring this and forbidding that on pain of a fine or some other contemptible little punishment.

Boarding day schools.

Regarding the comparative merits of day and boarding schools

* The remaining schools either did not answer this question or answered it in a confused way, which made it useless.

† One school states its punishment to be "hitting their knuckles."

generally, I am equally unable to state anything from my own observation. After inquiring, however, the opinions of a great number of persons, I found the prevailing notion to be that boarding schools are more favourable to a girl's intellectual progress, inasmuch as she can be kept steadily to work, and is free from the distractions (of parties, concerts, and so forth) which surround her at home, while in other respects they are somewhat less eligible, being apt to injure that simplicity and naturalness which is the greatest charm of a girl's character and manner, and exposing her too unreservedly to the influence of her companions. Here as in the case of boys' schools, the balance has to be struck between the advantages of being thrown on one's own resources, and gaining some experience of the world and its ways, and the evil tendencies of coteries, petty jealousies, and unprofitable talk. It is agreed that as a boarding school pervaded by the influence of a cultivated and high-principled mistress is better than the life of an average home, so a bad boarding school, where the mistress is remiss and the tone of the scholars not high, is much worse than almost any home can be. So far as any practical conclusion can be thought to be indicated, it would seem to be this: that while there will always be abundance of parents wishing to use boarding schools, and abundance of children for whom they are suited, it is nevertheless most desirable to put a good day school education within the reach of every person living in a town large enough to furnish 40 or 50 pupils who would remain at school till the age of 14 or 15. At present there are out of the 36 towns in Lancashire whose population exceeds 5,000 not more than five or six where a sound plain education can be had for girls, whatever price a parent may be willing to pay for it.

Want of games for girls.

Before quitting the subject of discipline, it may be remarked that girls suffer very much from the want of good games. A girl of of sixteen looks upon the skipping rope and similar diversions very much as a boy of sixteen looks upon marbles. Croquet is better than nothing, but croquet gives very little exercise. Hence at a day school there is hardly anything that can be called genuine hearty play; and a boarding school has to fall back upon the dreary two and two walk along the dusty highway or the dull suburban street.

The Teachers in Girls' Schools.

Their Income.

Income of the teachers.

On this point it is impossible from the nature of the case to make any but a conjectural estimate. The Lancashire girls' schools being private schools, the income of the mistress is variable, is sometimes hardly known even to herself, and is a subject respecting which she cannot well be expected to furnish information. Those of your questions (in the printed form of inquiry) which bore upon pecuniary matters excited in some quarters no little suspicion, being supposed, as I was told, to have something to do with the income tax, and to expose those who answered them to unknown pains and penalties. The charges

in Lancashire boarding schools are very moderate compared with those of London schools, and one can hardly suppose that fortunes are often made by their mistresses. I certainly saw no school whose mistress appeared to be making a fortune. In day schools the scale of fees is somewhat higher (as has been stated above) for girls than for boys. I doubt, however, if the private schoolmistress realizes a larger profit than the schoolmaster, for although the salaries given to governesses are low, yet a considerable part of what a parent pays goes to masters, especially music masters, and as the school is generally smaller than a boys' school of the same social rank, the expense of working is greater and the profit upon each child less. On the whole, considering the responsibilities and difficulties of school keeping, Lancashire mistresses cannot be thought to be now overpaid, although the expense to parents is greater than it need be. The salaries received by resident governesses average from 30*l.* to 100*l.* in the genteel schools (class A.) and from 10*l.* to 20*l.* in the cheap ones.* Very frequently no salary is given, especially in the cheaper schools, the assistant being paid by her keep, and by occasional lessons in music and French. In the cheaper schools (class B.) it is evidently impossible to secure high capacity at such prices, and hence most highly educated women who are driven to educational work, prefer situations in private families, which are thought more dignified, are probably less laborious, and are on the whole more lucrative.

It need scarcely be remarked that as women scarcely ever take up school-keeping of choice as a profession, the income to be made by it has a much less direct influence on the quality of the teachers than is the case in boys' schools.

Their Qualifications.

Deficiencies the teachers girls' schools.

Although a considerable number of women of ability, energy, and refinement may be found among the mistresses of girls' schools, especially of the higher class, there can be no doubt that, taken as a body, the teachers in these schools are not competent for their work. I do not state this as the result of my own observation merely, but also on the faith of the evidence of almost everyone with whom I conversed in Lancashire, including the Lancashire schoolmistresses themselves, who were indeed the loudest in deploring the present unsatisfactory state of things. This incompetence appears to be due to three causes:

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* I need hardly remark that a great indisposition was shown to state the exact salaries paid to assistant teachers. Not more than one copy out of eight of the returns gives a clear and candid account, and many omit to state whether the governess is resident or not. I have, therefore, been obliged to desist from an attempt to show in a tabular form the amount of the salaries paid. In looking through the returns, I find that out of about 30 cases in which the salaries of assistants are mentioned, there is only one in which the assistant receives 100*l.* a year or upwards, six in which she receives from 40*l.* to 60*l.*, thirteen in which she receives 20*l.* to 40*l.*, and several others in which she receives less than 20*l.*, sometimes her board only, with perhaps some instruction.

Want of any institutions for supplying a high education to women;

(1.) *Deficient education.* This does not usually show itself in gross ignorance, although I am told, and can well believe, that such cases are not rare among those who teach the cheaper schools (3*l.* to 8*l.* per annum), but in an extreme superficiality and flimsiness of knowledge and in the want of accuracy of mind. The teachers cannot be greatly blamed for it, since it is the result of the inadequate provision now made in this country for the instruction of women. Schoolmasters, as has already been remarked, are far from being what might be desired, either in point of knowledge or of mental cultivation. Conceive, however, what schoolmasters would be if there were in England no universities, nor any foundation schools either of the higher or the lower grade, and if the private schools, by which alone education would then be supplied, were to lose the reflex influence and the stimulating rivalry of these public institutions. This is exactly what the state of the teachers of girls is now. At present the heads of ladies' schools have rarely, and their assistant teachers almost never, any acquaintance with Latin, still less with mathematics or natural science. Their history is picked up from school books. They can seldom read a German book, that is to say, read it well enough to profit by the contents. They have not been taught arithmetic intelligently, and therefore cannot explain it to their pupils. They have not been taught French accurately, and have seldom any other notion of accuracy than the repetition of rules and phrases as they stand in the book.

Or to train them to become teachers.

(2.) *Deficient training for the work of teaching.* Specific and express training for this end is perhaps not more uncommon among women than among male teachers; it hardly exists among either. (I speak, of course, only of persons belonging to the upper and middle classes.) But a man has received, at a good school and afterwards at his university, a so much more thorough general education than a girl can hope to receive, that he is better able to extemporize an art of teaching; moreover he more frequently makes teaching the business of his life, and if he has the good luck to serve his apprenticeship under a skilful head master, he picks up some knowledge of the art from intercourse with him. Governesses, on the other hand, look upon school work as a temporary resource only; they are content to get through the lesson hearing in a perfunctory way, trying to rid themselves of the distasteful necessity as soon as possible. Hence, the want of skill in teaching and of the very conception of the process of teaching as an art is an even more serious evil in girls' schools than it is in boys.

Schoolmistresses are frequently ignorant of new methods and new books.

(3.) *Isolation.*—Schoolmasters, at least of the better class, live in the world, and know what is going on in it. If educational questions are being discussed they are concerned to follow the discussion; if books appear — classical or scientific books, or histories or travels—which can serve them professionally, they hear of them and try to read and profit by them. Many maintain close relation with their university, and through it with their brethren throughout the country. Schoolmistresses, with few exceptions, live in isolation, often even in seclusion. They continue to use obsolete methods and text books, and are possessed

by antiquated notions which seriously impair their efficiency as teachers.

Want of university degrees among women: is this any evil?

The injurious effects of another peculiarity of girls' as compared with boys' schools—the want of any such external qualification and testimony of fitness as is supplied by a university degree, seem to me to have been much exaggerated. A certificate which declared the possession of a creditable amount of knowledge and capacity to teach, and which should be given with scrupulous care to none but deserving persons, would have a real value; but it may be doubted whether university degrees, as they are at present given, do not injure education much more than they benefit it. There is in particular an extraordinary and (it is hardly necessary to say) a wholly misplaced reverence in England for an Oxford or Cambridge degree. People suppose that instead of proving merely that a man has resided for three years in one of those seats of learning, and has acquired a certain exceedingly limited (and probably to him quite profitless) knowledge of Latin and Greek, with the merest smattering of mathematics or history (frequently got by rote), it witnesses to high literary or scientific capacity. With university honours the case is different. But parents don't know the difference between a class and a poll or pass degree, and even trustees in making appointments to grammar schools are seldom competent to judge of the value of university distinctions. Their one substantial service is that rendered to the head masters of important foundations, who, in procuring assistant masters, can ascertain by a candidate's degree what his positive knowledge is, while their own experience of men helps them when they see him to judge of his fitness for school work. The want among women of anything similar to university honours is, therefore, the source of some difficulty to the heads of ladies' schools in choosing their governesses.

Teaching is among women a temporary resource.

The two capital defects of the teachers of girls are these—they have not themselves been well taught, and they do not know how to teach. Both these defects are accidental, and may be remedied. The source of a third is much deeper. Hardly any women take up teaching as a profession, meaning to stick to it and live by it. A clergyman, or a merchant who has just become bankrupt, dies suddenly, leaving his daughters unprovided for. They have received the ordinary education of girls in their rank of life—a flimsy education, which has made them able to play and sing, and speak a little French, but has given them no solid and connected body of knowledge, and no power of mental labour. To support themselves, perhaps to support their mother and the younger children, they must go out as governesses or open a school. Their intentions are the best possible; but how can they hope to become efficient teachers? The same thing happens among persons of a lower social rank; in fact it happens with much worse results. The expensive schools are comparatively permanent. The principal (as she is styled) acquires experience in her work, and sometimes gets old pupils whom she has formed to assist her in teaching. And some part of the teaching is done by visiting

masters, who make teaching their business. But the schools to which the children of tradesmen resort have no character to make or lose; they are started by a widow or two sisters who think school-keeping a shade more genteel than millinery; the neighbours send their children out of good nature. For five or six years the school goes on, the girls learning nothing from a teacher who is only fit to ask questions out of Blair's catechism. Then the schoolmistress is married or goes to keep house for a brother; the school disappears, and another one like unto it arises in its stead.

Zeal of the schoolmistresses. Marked natural capacity of women for teaching.

The bright point in this otherwise gloomy landscape is that women are naturally skilful teachers, and that they are, so far as my observation goes, zealous and conscientious teachers. Whenever I happened to hear the teaching of a lady of good ability who had herself been thoroughly educated, its merits struck me as at least equal, and probably superior, to those which would be found in the teaching of a man of the same general capacity and education. Women seem to have more patience as teachers, more quickness in seeing whether the pupil understands, more skill in adapting their explanations to the peculiarities of the pupil's mind, and certainly a nicer discernment of his or her character. They are quite as clear in exposition as men are, and, when well trained, quite as capable of making their teaching philosophical. I must confess myself to have been also impressed by the interest which they so often took in their pupils, and their genuine ardour to do their best for them. Charlatanism and a mercenary spirit are no doubt far more repulsive in a schoolmistress than in a schoolmaster; but they are also, if I may judge from what I saw, far more rare.* Having unfortunately a good deal that is not agreeable to record, it is all the more pleasant to be able to say that I met with several schoolmistresses in Lancashire of high cultivation and marked capacity for teaching; that I found many others struggling hard against the mean ideas of parents, and full of zeal for any project of educational reform, and that I can remember scarcely any who did not seem to be doing their duty carefully and honestly, according to their ability, towards the children placed under their charge. There is not any reason why girls' schools should not be almost wholly taught by women, if there existed any means by which women who intended themselves for the profession might obtain a high education and some measure of specific training in the art of teaching. Visiting masters, useful and excellent as some few of them are, cannot do for girls what may be done by a highly cultivated teacher of their own sex, able to gain an intimate knowledge of the character and aptitudes of her pupils, able to gain their confidence, inspire them with a fondness for study, and lead their minds away from those petty thoughts and interests which are too frequently permitted to absorb them.

* I met with but one thorough-paced impostor among the private schoolmistresses, and three or four at the least among a not greater number of private schoolmasters.

Actual State of Girls' Education.

It does not seem necessary, in endeavouring to present a picture of the educational condition of Lancashire as respects girls, to describe separately the four districts into which, in treating of boys' schools, it was proper to divide the county. For although the girls' schools are better in Liverpool and Manchester than they are in the lesser manufacturing towns or in the rural district, the system and character of all in every part of the county are essentially the same.

Different ways in which Lancashire girls are educated.

Taking the proportion of girls of school age (8–16) belonging to what is called the middle class at 10 to every 1,000 of the population, the number of such girls in Lancashire would be, in round numbers, 24,000.* There are four different ways in which these girls are educated.

(α) A certain proportion are taught at home by their parents or by governesses, resident or visiting. What this proportion is, there are of course no means of determining; but I believe it to be a small one, probably smaller than in the South of England.

(β) Some are in the Privy Council schools, during either a part or the whole of their school course. Here again, the exact number cannot be ascertained, but it is apparently much smaller than the number of boys of the same social rank who use these schools, and can scarcely exceed 10 or 15 per cent.

(γ) A third class includes those who are sent to boarding schools situated out of Lancashire, and chiefly, of course, in the South of England. In estimating them at seven per cent. of the whole, I am making a mere conjecture; but such an estimate is probably not above the truth. They mainly belong, it need not be said, to the upper section of the middle class.

(δ) Lastly, we have those who are educated in the private day and boarding schools of Lancashire itself, forming, probably, some 65 or 70 per cent. of the whole number. What proportion are boarding, and what day scholars, I have no means of ascertaining. But there is reason to believe that day schools are used by a majority even of the richer and by an overwhelming majority of what is called the poorer middle class.

Education received by girls belonging to the upper middle class.

Leaving out of view for the moment the three former classes, it may be asked what is the average education received by a Lancashire girl in the private schools of her own county. I will take first the case of the daughter of a merchant or professional man or wealthy shopkeeper.

Till her tenth year she remains at home under the hands, sometimes of a nursery governess, sometimes of a visiting governess, and is taught, probably along with her brothers, to read and write and sew, to say the multiplication table, to learn the rudi-

* I do not mean that all the 24,000 between eight and sixteen are at school at the same time, since many (probably 15 or 20 per cent.) leave school at 14 or 15. But counting in those under eight who are at school (and who appear in the returns made to your Forms of Inquiry), 24,000 is probably not too large a number to assume as that of the Lancashire girls belonging to the so-called middle class who are, in some way or another, receiving their education at the same time.

ments of musical notation and the first few pages of a French grammar. The teaching is often painstaking, but it is not intelligent. Then she is sent, sometimes at once, more frequently after two or three years at a day school, to a boarding school with some pretensions to selectness. Here, besides going on with French and writing and spelling, she takes a little arithmetic, a little grammar, a little geography, a little Roman, Greek, and English history, the elements of German, the use of the globes, and drawing from the flat, and she listens once a week to a lecturer discoursing on botany, or showing chemical experiments. She rises at 7, practises or learns lessons for an hour before breakfast, goes into the class-room at 9, is there, perhaps with one interruption for play, until noon. An hour is spent in croquet, or more frequently in loitering about the garden or play-yard; dinner comes at 1 or 1·30; work is resumed at 2 or 2·30 and continues until 4 or 5, when the day pupils saunter away homeward, and the boarders go out two by two for their daily walk. In the evening from one to two hours are employed in preparation or in making up arrears of practising, and sometimes a governess reads aloud from an improving book while the listening circle sews or knits. Wednesdays and Saturdays are half-holidays. Counting in the time spent on music and in preparation, the working day consists of from eight to nine hours, a time quite sufficiently long if the work were done with spirit. Unfortunately very little of it is done with spirit.

Want of effective teaching.

Sometimes the masters* are indifferent teachers, but even when they are good—and I met in Manchester and Liverpool with one or two who were remarkably good—they come so seldom (once or twice a week only) and stand so much more in the position of lecturers than of teachers, that they effect far less in the way of stimulating and training the intellects of their pupils than would be effected by an equally good resident female teacher who could acquire a personal knowledge of her class. It is chiefly the outlying subjects† such as Latin or science or English literature (where taught), and usually only the elder girls, that are taken by masters. The rest of the school in all subjects, and the higher classes in such subjects as history, geography, and arithmetic, are committed to governesses or taken by the mistress herself. From the governesses the girl generally gets but little, because they have so little to give; she says her lessons to them in a mechanical way, while they keep their eyes on the book to arrest a slip, and that is all. From the mistress she sometimes does learn a good deal, for the mistresses of these schools are frequently, as has been said already, earnest and high-minded women, able to form their pupil's character, and anxious to excite her interest in study. But their knowledge of teaching as an

* I do not speak of the music masters, respecting whose merits I could form no opinion.

† Chiefly, although not altogether, for French and German are frequently taught by masters to the more advanced pupils. I have even known cases in which arithmetic was taught by a master.

art often falls short of their zeal; they are obliged to make the school system suit the wishes of misguided parents, and they are burdened with the cares of a large household.

Thus the average boarding school girl does not see much of her mistress (unless the school is very small), and comes under no other powerful influence. She learns so many bits of things that one drives the other out of her head. She knows well enough that none of them, except possibly her music and dancing, will make any difference to her success in life. She is a member of isolated society in which cliques and coteries spring up, and where a constant stream of gossip ripples on, gossip about looks, or dress, or the comparative wealth of parents, or the peculiarities of the French governess, or other equally profitable subjects. No atmosphere can be less favourable to the formation of a high character or even to mental activity, nor is the rest of her life such as to maintain that healthy balance of mind and body by which mental activity should be sustained. She has little time allotted for play, her games are few, and such as give scarcely any exercise. If not interested in her school work she is interested in nothing else; if she is interested, there is some little danger that she may overtask her strength, since in girls' schools those counter-balancing influences are wanting which among boys keep in check the spirit of emulation, and enable study to be pursued in a more robust and less exciting fashion.* Frivolity and languor of boarding school life.

The average girl, however, is not interested, being confused among the multitude of things she learns; she pursues her complex course of studies with more or less diligence, according to her docility and force of nature; and at 17 is either taken home and launched into society, or else is sent for a year to a "finishing school." I do not in the least know what are the attributes—the connotation, so to speak—of a school described by this phrase, so frequently in the mouths of parents, nor do parents themselves appear to know.† As they use it, it is a purely relative term, and denotes an establishment more expensive than that at which their daughter was before—one where the masters charge higher for music and dancing, and where the "selectness" which high fees are thought to secure may be supposed to imply superior refinement of manners. To a girl of the richer class, a "finishing school" is generally one in the south of England, and of these I cannot speak from personal observation. But, so far as appears, the methods pursued and general character of the education are just the same as in the genteel Lancashire schools, and the only difference to the girl is The "finishing" school.

* I do not mean that this danger is at present serious; on the contrary, ill-health seems to be far more frequently caused by the languor and dulness of an unoccupied mind than by overwork. But if an examination system were to rule girls' schools and the teaching were to become much more stimulating than it is now, it would be desirable at the same time to make a better provision for physical exercise than now exists.

† Many rich people in Lancashire have risen suddenly to wealth; and, being themselves uncultivated, such persons often neglect their daughter's education till she is nearly grown up.

that she learns out of other text books and has accomplishment lessons from a new set of masters. The "finishing school" is not so much an educational agent as a tribute which the parent pays to his own social position, and the ultimate effect on the girl is much the same whether she goes there or not. In any case her schooling, and not only her schooling but her education also, is over at 17 or 18. She can then play well on the piano, can dance, can, if her natural capacities are good, translate an ordinary French author without dictionary, make an attempt (usually a faint one) at speaking French when she goes to Paris, and follow the general sense of an easy German author with the help of a dictionary and grammar. At writing German she cannot make the feeblest attempt. She can work a sum in the simple rules of arithmetic, but gets confused over one in practice or proportion, and is quite at sea in fractions or decimals. She has a general notion of English history, believes, for example, that William the Conqueror introduced the feudal system, and that Cromwell put Charles the First to death to gratify his spite and serve his private ends. As regards the branches of science which she was taught, from astronomy down to heraldry, she has a consciousness of having known something about them, and remembers a certain number of isolated facts. Here and there a girl of more than common ability has contracted at school (probably from the head mistress) a taste which abides with her, and continues to read history or poetry for her own edification after she returns home, or pursues her German or Italian under a visiting master. But as a rule an unmarried young lady, living at home, reads only the novels which the circulating library supplies, spends her mornings in letter writing, fancy work, and other approved means of killing time, her afternoons in shopping and visiting, her evenings in concerts, parties, and tea drinkings. Things learnt fade fast from the mind when there is nothing to recall them. It is very hard for a girl to keep up the habit of thoughtful reading when there is no object to be gained by it, no person to stimulate or direct it, and a hundred petty influences to distract the mind and break in upon times set apart for study. Hence in a year or two the positive knowledge acquired at school has pretty nearly vanished, leaving just such a residuum as prevents the young lady from betraying any culpable ignorance. This knowledge was fragmentary from the first, being multifarious and disconnected—being known not scientifically, as a subject, but merely as so much "information"; and hence, like a wall of stones without mortar, it readily falls to pieces. As to thorough mental training, the formation of intellectual habits and tastes, it was not the wish of the parents to foster these, it was seldom the object of the school. Education has not failed to create them, because it has not tried.

Educational result upon the young lady of eighteen.

The education received by girls of what is called the lower middle class, daughters of persons whose incomes range from 150*l.* to 600*l.* per annum (excluding the professional men) is considerably shorter, stopping at 14 or 15 instead of 17 or 18, and turns rather less upon accomplishments. The great majority of

State of education among girls of the poorer middle class.

people of this class—the clerks, warehousemen, and shopkeepers, with the highest grade of artisans—live in towns and send their children to day schools; it is chiefly by the richer farmers (who are few in Lancashire) and by the petty manufacturers, mine managers, and so forth, who live scattered through the country, that the cheap boarding schools are supported. I will suppose, therefore, that the typical girl of this class, daughter of a clerk with 200*l.* per annum, or of a grocer in one of the manufacturing towns, goes to a day school. She is nearly ten years old when she goes, and has learnt at home little but reading and how to hold a needle, that being pretty nearly all her mother or elder sister can teach her. In the school, which is a small one, she is perfected in reading, learns spelling from a book, of which she repeats half a column daily; learns geography and English grammar—both by rote; does sums out of an arithmetical text-book twice or thrice a week, and reads in Goldsmith's History of England. After two or three years this course is extended to include chronology, geology, and mythology, with other branches of science and general information, which she learns by committing to memory the answers in Mangnall's Questions, or some one of the numerous catechisms already mentioned. An hour or two in the afternoon is also devoted to needlework, plain and ornamental, the latter being especially precious in the eyes of farmers' wives. And if her parents are rather more ambitious than their neighbours she is also taught French, and takes lessons on the pianoforte, spending, however, far less time in practising than is spent by pupils in the genteel schools. This course of study—interrupted, of course, by frequent absences from school when the day is wet, or she is wanted to mind the baby—continues till the girl is 14 or 15. Everything, except perhaps the music and in rare cases the French, is taught by the mistress, either single-handed, or with the assistance of a younger sister or a governess, who gets 15*l.* or 20*l.* a year and her board. The classes consist of four or five children each, who stand round the mistress to repeat their lesson; while the rest of the school (which seldom exceeds 20 or 25 in number) sits here and there sewing, or doing sums, or learning the Mangnall which is to be repeated immediately afterwards. The rooms are those of a small private house, low-roofed and stifling; the playground is a back yard surrounded by houses.

Inefficiency of most of the cheap schools.

How little a girl can manage to learn during five years spent in such a school will hardly be believed by those who have not had ocular proof of it. So far as I could discover most girls in these private schools carry nothing away but reading (which is generally good), an angular and scratchy handwriting, and a very indifferent skill with the needle, much less, that is to say, than they would have got in a well-conducted National or British school. I remember to have gone into a ladies' school* in one of the chief towns of the county, where there were some 25 girls, daughters of professional

Instances.

* In this school, a typical one in its way, music was learnt by one-fourth of the girls, and French by about one-eighth. There was a master for music and dancing.

men and shopkeepers, paying 6*l.* or 8*l.* per annum. The list of the school-books which they used—mostly catechisms upon all subjects, including Greek and Roman history and geography and nearly every branch of science—would fill a page, yet not one could do the simplest sum in the addition of money, or answer any question in English grammar except in the words of the book which she had got by rote. Further examination of the pupils would no doubt have disclosed equal ignorance in other subjects, but the mistress seemed so much distressed by the children's performances that I gave over questioning them. She was a well meaning and may have been a painstaking woman, a widow who had started a school to support herself, engaged a master for music and dancing, and then gone on teaching the other subjects, without the least notion of her own incapacity. Happening to enter another school—in a great manufacturing town—where there were some 25 girls (fees 5*l.* 5*s.* to 6*l.* 6*s.* per annum) I found a lesson in geography going on. The chief mistress, an elderly person and rather deaf, was sitting knitting with a geography book open on her knee, the children stood round, and she questioned them from it thus: "What is separated from Scandinavia by the narrow sea called the Sound?" "What island in the South of England is remarkable for its beauty?" When I asked her whether grammar was taught, she answered "Yes, they learn a verb every day." As to teaching them what grammar meant, they might as well have said their lessons to the arm-chair as to her. I might describe a dozen such schools in all of which it was evident that the teaching had effected nothing; the pupil's mind at the end of five years was just where it had been; no more knowledge, no more taste, no more aptitude for any useful occupation.

A Lancashire parent of the lower middle class is usually satisfied with this education for his daughter, and takes her from it at 14 or 15. Sometimes, however, it is desired to put on a finer polish, and the girl is therefore sent for a year to a boarding school "to finish." No one could blame the boarding school if it did but little in one year for a mind already dwarfed and distorted by bad teaching. But the boarding-school (assuming it, as one may do, to belong socially to the same class) follows (in all probability) the same vicious system as the day-school, and the only difference that it makes to the girl is to take away some of the primitive roughness or simplicity of her manner and give it an air of affectation and constraint. Then at 16 she goes home "for good." She displays the two or three pieces of ornamental needlework, each of which has occupied her three months,* and some drawings, copies from the flat of figures and landscapes, whose high finish betrays the drawing master's hand. A neighbour drops in, conversation turns upon Jane's return from school, and the mother bids her play one of the pieces she learnt there. For two or three weeks this exhibition of skill is repeated at intervals, and then it ceases, the piano is no more touched, the dates of inventions, the relationships of the

Ultimate result on the girl; her return home.

* The farmers are fond of framing these works of art, and hanging them up in the state parlour.

heathen gods, the number of houses burnt in the fire of London, and other interesting facts contained in Mangnall are soon forgotten, and the girl is as though she had never been to school at all. There are few books on her father's shelves, perhaps two or three green and yellow novels, some back numbers of the Family Herald, Mr. Tupper's Proverbial Philosophy, Cowper's poems with gilt edges, dusted more often than opened, "Enquire within upon Everything," and one or two religious biographies. It is not this want of material, however, that quenches her taste for reading, for school gave her no such taste; her life henceforth till marriage is listless and purposeless, some of it spent in petty occupation, more of it in pettier gossip; and when at last she is called upon to manage a household she finds that her education has neither taught her anything that can be of practical service, nor made her any fitter than nature made her at first to educate and govern her children. In point of knowledge and refinement she is just where her mother was, and her sons and daughters suffer for it.

A few schools are bright exceptions, *e.g.*, the Liverpool Institute Girls' School.

It will be understood that in thus describing the education of the average girl of the poorer middle class, I do not mean to describe everyone of the schools used by that class. In both Liverpool and Manchester there are places where a sound training may be had at very low fees. The most remarkable of these is the girls' school in connexion with the Liverpool Institute, where 300 children (daughters of clerks, shopkeepers, and the better mechanics, with a few children of professional men) receive at 5*l.* 12*s.* per annum a good useful education, to which they may, if they please, add accomplishments as extras.* The teaching is not, with perhaps two or three exceptions, of a high order, for that can only be given by persons of natural ability who have themselves been educated more highly than the Institute teachers. But of its kind it is thorough and sensible.† In Manchester there is no public girls' school of the same magnitude, but I found two private schools of this class of very considerable merits. Although the fees were not very high, in one of them only 2*l.* 11*s.* to 3*l.* 7*s.* per annum (French, of course, being an extra), the teaching in both was solid and useful, and in one of them the performances of the pupils in arithmetic were highly creditable. In Liverpool too there are a few such, and every here and there through the other parts of the county it is possible that there may exist cheap private schools of some merit, kept probably by some one from the Government training colleges. But such schools must be extremely few, for I did not come across them or hear of them. Those which I visited in the manufacturing towns and in the rural district were either bad (except one or two which might be pronounced just tolerable), or else were restricted by the scale of their charges to persons of a somewhat higher social position.

Result of inquiries in two Lancashire towns.

It may be worth while to attempt to convey to you an idea of the actual state of things by describing the result of particular inquiries prosecuted in two Lancashire towns, differing a good deal

* *Vide supra*, p. 596.

† Also well taught, and with a well-arranged curriculum of studies, is the Collegiate School for girls in Liverpool, founded three or four years ago by the exertions of Dr. Howson.

(*a*) In a large manufacturing town

in the character of their respective populations. The first is a manufacturing town of some 40,000 people, containing, one may suppose, about 400 girls of school age (8–16), above the rank of artisans. The richest people—millowners, bankers, solicitors, and so forth—send their daughters to boarding-schools at a distance, some to Southport and the neighbourhood of Liverpool, others to London. I find in the Directory the names of about 150 persons described as private residents or professional men, but among these not more than 30 who would be likely to send their children away. Adding to these some few of the richest shopkeepers, and of the people connected with factories or mines, the number of girls who belong to the town but are educated elsewhere may be estimated at 50 or 60.

There are in the town seven day schools for girls. That which is accounted the most genteel contains 25 scholars, daughters mostly of the better class of shopkeeepers, with a few of the minor manufacturers and professional men.* Its charge is 6*l.* 6*s.* per annum; most of the girls learn music, very few drawing, only two French. The mistress seemed sensible and careful, but the performances of her pupils, so far as I could judge from a few questions, were indifferent. A second—socially lower—charges 4*l.* 4*s.* per annnm, and has 18 daughters of tradespeople, publicans and so forth. It is kept by a teacher (of no particular merit) formerly in a Privy Council school, who gets a French lady to come in and teach French to such pupils as desire it. Music and dancing, she tells me, are considered indispensable by the parents, the arts of fancy work and cutting out paper flowers are also valued. A third has 28 girls, including some very young children. The charges are from 2*l.* 2*s.* to 3*l.* a year (according to age). No music nor French is taught, only reading, writing, spelling, arithmetic, grammar, history, geography, and "general knowledge." I examined the highest class, consisting of eight girls (ages 10 to 14). They spelt pretty well, and two or three succeeded in doing an easy sum in the addition of money. The rest could not even take it down from dictation. Most of them were ignorant of arithmetical notation. None appeared to know anything of geography, or history, or English grammar, not even the parts of speech. The mistress was a gentle, quiet person; her school, she said, suffered from the competition of the Privy Council schools, which took girls (of the same class as those who come to her) at 2*d.* a week. A fourth school (kept by a master formerly in a Privy Council school) is mixed. I found 33 boys and 5 girls in it (of the same class socially as the preceding) who were learning the elementary subjects with the addition of history, geography, and English grammar. They paid 3*l.* to 4*l.* 4*s.* per annum. The master needed assistance, the children being of very different ages; his teaching, however, was intelligent and apparently sound so far as it went. There are three other private girls' schools in the town. One of them is very similar, so far as I could ascertain, to the preceding; it contains 12 pupils, children of tradesmen, of whom four learn instrumental music, two dancing, and

* These, the mistress told me, often went for a year to a boarding school to "finish."

none French. Fees 4*l.* 4*s.* per annum. Another did not answer the questions of the Commission, and no one in the town seemed to know much about it; it cannot have more than a dozen scholars, if so many. A third seemed to be suspended at the time of my visit, owing to the illness of a relative of the teacher; it had however returned answers to the questions of the Commission, and from these it appeared that there were 18 scholars in attendance, from eight to ten years of age, paying from 1*l.* 14*s.* to 2*l.* 2*s.* per annum. None were learning either French or music. Then besides these there is a convent school charging 4*l.* 4*s.* a year, and used of course by Roman Catholic children only. I do not know the number, but it can exceed scarcely and probably does not reach 30. Reckoning all these together, I find that there are in the schools of the town (other than Government schools) not more than 140 girls. Supposing (as above) 60 to be away at boarding schools, 200* remain to be accounted for. Some of these may not be at school at all; the rest, I conclude, must be in the Government schools, receiving their education at the expense of the country. How many these may be it was of course impossible to ascertain. But anyhow two things were clear: firstly, that less than one-half of the estimated number of girls of the middle-class were receiving their education in the local schools used by the middle class; and secondly, that three-fourths of those who were in the local schools were receiving a very poor, I may almost say a worthless, education.

General conclusions respecting the state of the town.

The other town lies in an agricultural district, and has a population of about 6,000. It contained at the time of my visit seven private girls' schools; of these one was by common consent the best and most fashionable. It had some 50 scholars on the books, 43 of whom were present on the day of my visit; about one-third were the daughters of farmers, the rest mostly of shopkeepers. The charge was 4*l.* 4*s.* per annum for day scholars. All learnt history, geography, and English grammar; a music master came once a week (to teach only one pupil, however), and a dancing master also once a week. One of the teachers gave French to such girls as desired it. I examined the girls in most of the subjects taught. Their writing was creditable, the mistress discouraging an angular hand; so was the spelling. Geography and history were not more than passable, the latter being taught at first from a catechism which the pupils got by heart. At my request the schoolmistress examined her class in English grammar; it was disappointing to find her questions mechanical, taken straight from the book, and not turning upon points of real importance. As she was a clear headed and energetic woman, one could not think that she would have taught better

(*b*) In a moderately sized country town.

Account of the schools visited.

* It is possible that in taking the proportion of girls of school age (8–16), of the middle class at 10 to 1,000 of the whole population, I may have made an excessive estimate. Anyone who knows the Lancashire towns knows that in a population of such a character it is impossible to determine what is the middle and what the lower class, since many persons who belong to the middle class in point of income belong to the so-called lower class in point of social status and personal habits. Anyhow I do not doubt that out of this population of 40,000 there are 350 or 400 girls of school age whose parents could well afford to pay 4*l.* per annum for the education of each of two daughters at the same time.

if anyone had ever told her how. The somewhat wooden character of the teaching, and the obsolete books employed were the weak points of the school, which was, nevertheless, taken all in all, distinctly above the average. There was far less languor than one usually finds; there was more attempt at thoroughness; the indifferent character of the result was due partly to the wretched state of preparation in which the children came (many being sent for a year or two only after a neglected childhood) and to the want of knowledge in the mistress of good methods and good text-books.

The second school charged the same fees, and professed to be, though it evidently was not, equal in social rank. There were 28 pupils on the books, daughters of farmers and shopkeepers.* Its mistress was so fluttered and frightened by the advent of an inspector that it would have been cruel to examine the children; she led me, however, into the class-room, which was small and horribly close. A gentleman of the town who taught arithmetic was looking over the slates of some of the girls; the rest of the teaching seemed to be done by the mistress herself, who was evidently not very competent for her work. At present, she said, there was no French class, but a little drawing was taught; fancy work (especially embroidery to please the farmers), and the piano to five or six pupils. History was read in Goldsmith, and the Child's Guide to Knowledge got by rote; most girls went just so far in arithmetic as to get into practice; a few, it seemed, took proportion also. They came, some from National schools, and others straight from home to learn their A B C, and left at 14. So far as I could judge, the teaching must have been (with the possible exception of the arithmetic) almost worthless.

A third school confessed itself to be socially lower, being used by the inferior tradespeople and some of the farmers; 40 pupils were on the books, nearly half of them little boys. The fees were 1*l.* 10*s.* a year for English, with 10*s.* extra for fancy work; no French was taught, nor drawing, nor music. I saw the school-room, which as usual was small and close, and examined four of the most advanced pupils (ages 8–13) in English grammar and reading. The poor children knew nothing at all. The mistress was a respectable elderly person, and the time of her pupils was not altogether wasted, for they were knitting away pretty briskly all the time I was there. Here the Child's Guide was replaced by Blair's Catechism, which the girls got by heart.

The fourth school was a little more definitely elementary in its character, although the children, of whom there were 20 on the books (16 present), were the daughters of farmers and tradespeople, and paid fees (1*l.* 4*s.* 0*d.* per annum for reading and writing—1*l.* 16*s.* 0*d.* for reading, writing, and arithmetic) considerably higher than those of the national school. English grammar was taught, but no history or geography, much less French or music. They read and spelt

* Four were little boys preparing for the grammar school. Five of the farmers' daughters were weekly boarders.

passably, did not know anything of grammar. The copy-book of a girl of 10 was shown me as a specimen of a "lady's finishing hand;" it was a hideous saw-like scrawl. The mistress, like others of her sisterhood, complained of the competition of the Privy Council schools, to which, she said, many respectable people who could well have paid 4*l.* a year sent their children at 2*d.* a week to be taught at the public expense.

A fifth school was held in a small room, or rather shed, opening off a backyard approached by a very narrow passage: 26 children were said to be on the books; 18 were present, three of them little boys. Six or eight were learning Lennie's Grammar, and one had got as far in arithmetic as practice. The fees were 8*s.* or 10*s.* a year for very young children, 1*l.* 4*s.* for older ones; 1*l.* 12*s.* for those most advanced scholars who get into geography and English grammar. The mistress had been a pupil teacher in a Government school; she was very young, and had but just opened this little school. The children were almost all little things, reading words of one or two syllables.

A sixth school contained 45 girls, many of them Roman Catholics, who learnt reading, sewing, knitting, and fancy work—a good deal of the last-mentioned—from their mistress; and grammar, geography, and so forth, from her husband, who kept a boys' school in an adjoining room. The fees were from 16*s.* to 2*l.* per annum, according to the subjects taught. Many of the children seemed to belong to parents above the rank of labourers; the school, however, was really an elementary school, and a very bad one of its kind, both master and mistress being palpably unfit for their work.*

The total number of girls in these six schools, excluding boarders, is about 170, of whom about three-fourths were resident in or close to the town. The daughters of the richest people were no doubt sent to boarding schools, while many of those of the poorer middle class resorted to the national school. I visited it, and was assured by the teachers that the number of children of tradespeople and farmers was very small, but as all the private schools had declared that a considerable part of their scholars (who were nearly all the children of tradespeople and farmers) came from the national school, I could not but feel some doubt as to the exactness of this statement.

Conclusion as to the state of girls' education in this town.

Of the six private girls' schools described above, four were virtually elementary, and only one had any pretensions to efficiency. In all but this one a meagre education was given by the most incompetent persons in the most unprofitable way. It was the same in every one of the minor Lancashire towns—I may almost say of all the Lancashire towns—which I visited. Here and there one found a competent mistress and a good school—there are one or two

* Besides these six, I heard of another private girls' school in the town, whose fees were 2*d.* a week, its instructions purely elementary. There was also a Roman Catholic charity school, as well as a National school (inspected).

such in places on the coast like Blackpool and Grange, or in towns like Preston and Lancaster—but such schools are, almost without exception, restricted by their fees to the upper, or what may be called the upper middle, section of the middle class. The education of girls of that class is indeed far from satisfactory. Custom requires the children of the merchants and professional men to spend great part of their time upon accomplishments, and does not require other things to be learnt thoroughly. But the education of girls belonging to the poorer middle class is incomparably worse. The daughters of the farmers, who are sent to petty boarding schools, the daughters of the clerks and shopkeepers, who resort to the cheap day schools of the manufacturing towns, learn to read, to write badly, to execute elaborate uglinesses in thread or Berlin wool. That is all that school teaches them, and except for the sake of getting that, they might as well stay at home and mind the baby.

Summing up the results of such inquiries as I was able to make into the girls' schools of Lancashire, and comparing them with those obtained respecting boys' schools, the chief defects in the education of women, as at present conducted, will appear to be the following:

Small size of the schools.

1. The schools are too numerous and too small. Such competition as there is among them is a competition which lowers the price of education but does not improve its quality. In a school with from 10 to 25 pupils only (and more than half the total number of girls' schools are no bigger) it is impossible to let classes be organized according to the progress of the pupils, impossible to keep up spirit and momentum, impossible to have a sufficiently large staff of teachers, impossible also, unless the fees are heavy, to employ teachers of high education and capacity. There are children of peculiar temperaments whom a small school suits, as there are others whom home education suits. But taken as a whole the small school system is the most wasteful possible, and the most adverse to educational improvement.

Want of external stimulus.

2. There is no external stimulus to a school, and no test of the quality of its teaching. The same is true of the great majority of the private adventure boys' schools, especially the cheap ones, and it is one of the causes of their low state. There is nothing to do for them what the universities do for the greater grammar schools, and what the various professional examinations to some extent (though not without drawbacks) do for the more expensive of the private and some of the foundation schools. In the case of girls, even that slight test is wanting which is supposed to be furnished to the cheaper boys' schools by the fitness of the pupils for mercantile situations.

3. The teaching of almost all girls' schools, both dear and cheap, wants thoroughness. This is due to three causes:

Superficial character of

(*a*) The subjects which custom has fixed are not subjects which

encourage and require a thorough manner of treatment. Of course any subject, even heraldry or worsted-work, is learnt more profitably when it is learnt thoroughly. But the need of thoroughness and of the constant exercise of the intelligence as well as the memory is more violently forced upon the teachers' mind in working at arithmetic, mathematics, and Latin, than in running through manuals of history, geography, and general knowledge. Unfortunately arithmetic, mathematics, and Latin are the three subjects most neglected in girls' schools. French and German might in some degree replace Latin, but French and German are usually committed to unscientific hands, and dealt with in a superficial way. the teaching; causes thereof.

(*b*) Too many subjects are taught at once, and each of them is taught intermittently. A girl who spends only an hour or at most two hours a week upon any one branch of study cannot in three or four years time go very far into it. But a girl who spends that time a week upon each of some two dozen subjects, all running through and crossing one another, cannot know even the elements of any one soundly. Half would be far more than the whole.

(*c*) The teaching wants a practical aim. It is for show and not for use, for seeming and not for being. It is given "that the girl may be able to talk about things in society," "that people may "know that we have done our duty by Georgiana in sending her to "such an expensive school as Miss B.'s," and so forth. The teaching objectless.

4. Early education is very generally neglected. I do not know whether girls belonging to what is called the upper middle class are worse off in this respect than boys of the same class, but those of the poorer middle class certainly are. Where the brother is sent at eight years of age to the Government school, or to the cheap private school, the sister is kept at home until ten to help in the house, and because her schooling is really of no consequence. The years before ten are, as respects the education of the great majority of girls, merely so much lost time. Neglect in childhood.

5. There is an insufficient supply of competent teachers. As everyone knows, it is not because they are qualified for it that ladies become schoolmistresses or governesses, but because they have no other means of gaining a livelihood. Very few of those engaged in teaching have had an education better than the ordinary one received by other persons of their own rank in life, which is poor enough; scarcely any have had special training for the work of instruction, or the still more important work of guiding their pupils' minds. Natural capacity sometimes supplies the lack of systematic preparation, and thus there are a number of able and intelligent teachers in the more expensive girls' schools of the country. Their success, however, has so very little to do with their real merits that there is small Want of highly qualified teachers.

encouragement for persons of talent to enter this profession, or for aspirants to prepare themselves thoroughly for its duties. And in the cheaper schools the efficient teachers are very few indeed.

Possible means of improving the education of girls.

Respecting the remedies from the application of which an improvement in the education of girls may be hoped for, I need say the less, because most of them are naturally suggested by a description of the existing evils. It may be sufficient to mention three which seem to be both the most necessary and the most comprehensive.

Establishment of schools under public supervision.

1. The first of these is the establishment of schools for girls under public authority and supervision. As women form one-half of the community, not the less important half, when we consider how much depends upon mothers, there does not seem to be any reason why the State or the action of local bodies should not do for them whatever it is desirable to have done for boys. If it is proper to have in every town of 4,000 inhabitants and upwards a foundation school for boys, endowed or unendowed, the goodness of whose buildings, and the intellectual and moral qualifications of whose teachers are guaranteed by the public, why should not the same advantages be offered to girls? The defects of the private adventure schools—defects which seem likely, while England continues what it is, to make it impossible to trust education to them—are at least as serious in girls' as in boys' schools. Whether the existing endowments, some of which were designed for, and others of which were at any rate for a long time used by girls, should be appropriated to support grammar schools for them side by side with those which exist for boys, is a further question into which I need not enter. But it would be at all events most desirable to provide in every town large enough to be worthy of a grammar school a day school for girls under public management, where a plain, sound education should be offered at the lowest prices (from 5*l.* per annum upwards) compatible with the provision of good salaries for teachers, and which should be regularly examined by competent persons thereto appointed. The objection commonly made to this scheme, which I found, however, earnestly advocated by many persons of weight, is that it would injure the retiring grace and modesty of a girl's character. If it did so the fault would belong not to the institution but to its teachers and managers, for there are examples both in England and elsewhere to show that it need not do so. The pettiness and gossip of the small private school, the more serious evils which are said to prevail in so many boarding schools, where a girl is at the mercy of her companions, are far more hurtful than such little measure of freedom as is implied in resorting to a public day school. This fear of publicity, however, and passion for selectness, even if they deterred a portion of the upper middle class from using schools under public management, would not operate upon the poorer sections of it, upon that vast mass of shopkeepers, clerks, warehousemen, and highly paid mechanics whose daughters are now so wretchedly ill-educated. To

them at least the establishment of such schools would be the greatest possible boon, and would before long be felt to be such.

Changes in the subjects of instruction.

2. Considerable changes ought to be made in the course of instruction now received by girls of all classes. It would be proper to lay more stress upon arithmetic, to introduce mathematics everywhere, and Latin where there is a fair prospect of a girl's being able to spend four hours a week upon it for three years. And, as in boys' schools, provision should be made for the teaching of natural history, and of the elements of some branch of natural science. There are, moreover, three subjects for which it seems difficult to find room in the curriculum of instruction for Lancashire boys who leave school at 15 or 16 years of age, but which might be attempted in those ladies' schools where the pupils remain till 18. These are English literature, the elements of logic, and the elements of political economy. Of these the first is particularly necessary for girls, because, getting little or no education from professional or public life, they are affected far more than young men are by the books they read. It is, therefore, a matter of the first importance to form their taste, to show them the books that are best worth reading, to give them some notion of the canons whereby literary productions should be tried, and in fine to make it their habit and their pleasure to exercise their minds upon what they read, whether it be a history, or a poem, or a novel. The value of logic and political economy for ladies is too obvious to be dilated on; it is only necessary to remark that it is not at present easy to find persons competent to handle these subjects to advantage, persons who can make their teaching elementary without making it superficial.

Those changes which are needed in methods of teaching—the banishment, for instance, of Mangnall and all the noxious brood of catechisms—would come with the establishment of public schools, and the entrance as well into them as into private schools of better educated teachers. The thing most needed is to get rid of that singular theory of girls' education by which parents are at present governed—to make them believe that a girl has an intellect just as much as a boy, that it was meant to be used and improved, and that it is not to refinement and modesty that a cultivated intelligence is opposed, but to vapidity and languor and vulgarity of mind, to the love of gossip and the love of dress.

The provision for women of a higher education than schools give them.

3. Institutions are wanted which should give to women the same opportunity of obtaining the higher education which the universities give to boys. At present if a girl learns anything more than what school teaches her—how little that is I need not repeat—she learns it by herself from books, under the disadvantages of having no one to guide her study, no means of testing her progress, no goal or external reward to look forward to; above all, no oral teaching either to convey knowledge to her, or to excite that intellectual ardour which is so much more precious than any quantity of knowledge—more precious, as Lessing says, than the passive

possession of truth itself. Hence almost all women have to remain content with what school has taught them, picking up more or less from books according to their acuteness, but without the means of following out any study systematically, since they have not been so much as taught how to study. Without stopping to show in how many ways the want of this higher or university education injures the more elementary or school education, lowering the tone of the latter, opening up to the more studious and eager scholars no prospect of a wider field of knowledge into which they may hereafter be led by eminent teachers (such as those who adorn the universities), I am content to remark upon the most direct and obvious evil of which it is the cause. This is the low standard of education and of knowledge about education among schoolmistresses and governesses. One cannot speak without admiration of the ability of many, of the zeal and earnestness of the great majority among the ladies who are at the head of girls' schools in Lancashire; but this makes it all the more a matter for regret that they should not have had the means which a systematic university course affords of gaining a thorough and scientific knowledge of large subjects,* and that the assistant teachers, to whom they must always have to entrust a large part of school work, should so often be deficient in knowledge, in an intelligent comprehension of the nature of their duties, in mental cultivation and literary interests. In what manner, or by what institutions, the higher education should be provided for girls is a question on which even those who most desire it to be provided do not seem to have made up their minds. Some are anxious to see ladies' colleges, similar to those which already exist in London, founded in Manchester and Liverpool at least, if not also in some of the towns of the second rank.† Several ladies, for whose energy and public spirit no praise can be too high, have, as I understand, already made arrangements for the delivery in each of these towns, as well as in Leeds and Sheffield, of courses of lectures by men of eminence, to be attended by the more advanced pupils of those schools which join the movement, as well as by other ladies who may be willing to support it. And there are even some who hope to establish in the neighbourhood of London, something in the nature of a university for girls, which may serve as well the north as the south of England. The supporters of these projects are not as yet numerous, but they are zealous, they are active, they are by no means visionary, and they have already effected things which may be taken as an earnest and a pledge of ultimate success. Whatever be the means, the importance of the

* The most serious defect, it need hardly be said, is the absence of any knowledge of science, whether mathematical or physical, and of that sort of insight into language and literary history which it is hard to possess without some tincture of classical studies.

† An attempt to establish such an institution was made in Manchester about two years before my visit, but without success. Some difficulty was found in securing the co-operation of different sects; many people living far out in the suburbs thought that they would not gain much from a college in the city; and there were other obstacles of a personal nature which it is not necessary to specify.

object does not admit of a doubt. It is from the advent of more highly educated teachers that the first improvement in the education of girls is to be hoped for; and such teachers cannot be had until places are provided where they may obtain a training longer, more thorough, and more stimulating than is at present within their reach.

One thing struck me more forcibly the longer I remained in Lancashire, and that was the great importance in framing any scheme of educational reform, of making it, in the widest sense, comprehensive. As such a scheme, if it is to deal successfully with the higher schools, must constantly regard the circumstances and prospects of the lower schools on the one hand and of the universities on the other, so in making a provision for boys, it ought not to forget to provide also for girls. It is not more for the sake of girls than for that of boys that this is to be desired. For even as respects boys' schools, whatever the other causes to which their defects are due—the want of local organization, the maintenance of obsolete methods, the incompetence of teachers—the chief cause of every defect is to be found in the indifference of the vast majority of parents, especially of the commercial class, to any education whose direct pecuniary value they do not see. Such indifference is itself the result of a dull and material view of life, of an absence of interest in literature and science, in social and political questions. This is an evil which improvements in female education could not but do much to correct. In a mercantile community like that of Lancashire, men are sent so early in life to business, and are absorbed so constantly by it, that they have little or no time for reading or thought, and can seldom pursue, even if they have learnt to care for, any line of scientific, or literary, or historical study. Only the women have leisure. So far, therefore, from acquiescing in the mental inferiority of women as the normal state of things, it is really by the female part of such a community that one might expect to see its mental tone maintained; it is there that one would look to find a keener relish for literature or art, a livelier intellectual activity, a more perfect intellectual refinement. To the want of such intellectual interests, and to the dulness of mind which springs from that want, the present defects in our education are mainly due; as it is this very want, this dulness, which a better education is needed to cure and remove. In other words, the improvement of English schools means nothing less than the elevation of the English commercial class to a higher level of knowledge, taste, and culture, than that at which they now stand. In approaching so great a task as this may well be thought, there is surely no agency from which more may be hoped than the influence of cultivated women—women who have received from their education a sounder knowledge than education now gives them, powers of mind more thoroughly trained, a higher conception of the duties which the welfare of society requires them to discharge.

It only remains for me to acknowledge through you, since I can acknowledge in no other way, the friendliness and hospitality with which I was received in Lancashire. So far from exciting mistrust, your commission procured for me from almost all the persons with whom I was brought in contact a frank and cordial welcome, while from many I experienced an amount of personal kindness, sympathy, and aid in my work for which it would be ungrateful not to render my sincerest thanks. With this acknowledgment; and in the hope that the number and complexity of the topics with which I have had to deal in this report may be regarded by you as furnishing some apology for its incompleteness and its other defects,

I have the honour to be,
My Lords and Gentlemen,
Your obedient servant,
J. Bryce.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX A.

Some Remarks on Charities.

Having had no authority from you to enquire into any charities except those devoted to the support of grammar schools, I am unable to make any formal report upon the condition of other charities, or upon the desirability of applying to educational purposes any charitable fund now not so applied. I endeavoured, however, to pick up as much information as possible respecting charities, and in travelling up and down Lancashire and the west midland counties heard a good many facts stated and opinions expressed, the substance of which it may be well to lay briefly before you.

The charities most commonly met with are of five kinds; (1) doles of money, (2) doles in kind (*e.g.* gifts of bread or clothes), (3) almshouses, (4) apprentice premiums, (5) charity schools.

1. *Doles of money.*—Although a good many charities founded for this purpose have been of late years transferred to some more useful one, a great many still remain in every part of the country. They are usually gifts of from 1*s.* to 5*s.*, distributed by the clergyman and the churchwardens to all who choose to apply for them on some specified day. I can scarcely remember a single instance in which any one who was asked what was his experience of their working did not answer that they demoralized those who received them, were a vexation to those who distributed them, and created more want than they relieved. The clergy in particular often expressed in the strongest terms their feeling that money so applied was worse than wasted, and their wish that power could be obtained to apply it in some other way, if possible in education.* If the money, they said, were absolutely at our discretion, or at least of whoever gives it away, it might be made to reach the right persons at the right time. At present it is given on a fixed day and given in such small sums as to be of no real use to the recipient. The recipient is frequently undeserving, and since he looks on it as his right, he has no motive to show himself worthy of it by trying to help himself. And in the Lancashire towns, where work can almost always be had by any healthy man or boy, there is, as one of my informants remarked, less need of such money gifts than anywhere else.

Of the many cases in which I heard doles of money condemned I may mention two. In Worcester an immense sum of money is annually spent in charities, some of which are said, with what truth I know not, to be applied to political purposes. The particular charity of which I speak is applied honestly enough, but most absurdly; some 300*l.* a year or more (I could not ascertain the exact amount) is distributed in sums of 2*s.*, the trustees giving tickets to those who solicit them, which entitle the bearer to have the 2*s.* paid him. As my informant remarked, the time consumed by an applicant in finding a trustee, begging the ticket from him, and going to the place of distribution at the day and time fixed would have enabled him to earn 2*s.* in an honest way. The demand for tickets, however, is always great, and the results are what might have been expected. On one occasion some man of forethought among the distributors sent to London and had down a great number of florins, which were duly given away to the ticket holders. Next day he sent round to the public-houses, where the influx of florins had been immense, and got them in again to serve for next year.

In Bewdley, a small town on the Severn, in North Worcestershire, there is a charity called the Mill Meadow Charity, whose income, amounting to about

* They are well aware that a certain amount of local opposition might usually be expected.

100*l.* a year nett, is given away in sums varying from 2*s.* to 8*s.* 9*d.*, according so the size of the applicant's family. The town contains 3158 (census of 1861) people, and on the last occasion 1,300 applicants appeared, among them many persons of substance. All the trustees of the grammar school, from whom I heard this, agreed that the charity did nothing but mischief.

2. *Doles in kind.*—Of these one of the commonest is a distribution of bread at the church door. It is universally held to be not merely useless, but deleterious. It relieves the most impudent, not the most necessitous, and is a frequent source of annoyance to the clergyman, who sees at the church porch on Sunday morning a noisy crowd, some of whom do not enter church, while others enter from no laudable motive. Gifts of coals, of blue cloaks to the old women of the parish (a frequent form), of blankets, and so forth, are less objectionable, but even these articles, according to report, are frequently pawned; and it is generally agreed that the good done by such gifts is very small in proportion to the money spent on them.

3. *Almshouses.*—Respecting the utility of this form of charity there is more difference of opinion. I found some people maintaining that it was desirable to have such a provision for decayed tradespeople, while others condemned the thing as weakening a man's self-reliance, and as relieving his children of what was their clear duty. Every one agreed that to be useful—to be even harmless—almshouses must be managed with the greatest care and uprightness, and it is confessed that in most cases they are not so managed. Sometimes they are used for electioneering purposes.* More frequently they are made mere pieces of patronage, and old servants or other dependents are put in by people who would otherwise be expected to pension them off or contribute in some way to their support. Thus this charity, like so many others, becomes a charity not to the poor but to the rich. In some places, at Beaumaris, for example, I found what seemed to be a general feeling in favour of abolishing the almshouses and applying the funds to education.

4. *Apprentice Premiums.*—What the value of this kind of charity may be, or may formerly have been, it is hardly necessary to enquire, for it seems to be now almost obsolete. In almost every part of Lancashire, and in most parts of the west midland counties and of Wales, there are no longer boys who apply for the benefit of these charities, or if any do apply, it is merely for the sake of getting the premium, since masters are found sufficiently willing to take them without one. Sometimes a boy is bound to his father for the sake of getting the 10*l.* or 12*l.* Hence the funds are accumulating, and in some cases large sums of money are lying idle in the bank, there being no power vested in the trustees to dispose of them in any other way than for that which the founder specified. This is the case (among other places) in Rochdale, Bury, Whalley, Bispham (near Croston), Ashton-in-Makerfield, and in a good many places in Worcestershire, Shropshire, and Monmouth. A strong desire to have power to apply these funds to education was expressed to me by their trustees on many occasions.

5. *Charity Schools.*—By this name I mean to denote schools in which children are not only taught but also clothed, or (as happens oftener) both clothed and boarded. In this case, as in that of almshouses, the degree of diligence and public spirit wherewith the charity is administered makes a vast difference to its practical result. But even where such schools are best administered, it is obvious, and is indeed often confessed by the governors themselves, that the same amount of money would do far more good if it were applied to education alone, and not also for food and clothing. The reasons which I heard advanced in support of this view, and against the charity school system as a whole, were the following:—

(*a.*) Often the patronage is abused, still oftener it is exercised without discrimination. Boys are constantly nominated, not because they are clever and diligent, not even because their parents are indigent, but because they are the sons of some old servant, or dependent, or political supporter, whom the patron wishes to provide for or reward.†

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* Such cases were mentioned to me, but in a way which does not permit me to name them.

† A case was mentioned to me in which a charity school is managed for electioneering purposes.

(β.) The father of a charity boy is usually quite as well able as his neighbours to pay for his son's food and dress, and the only difference which the getting the child off his hands makes is to give him more money to spend upon his beer. Or in other words, the boon of an education gratis, or of an education better than the father would or could have afforded to pay for, is a sufficiently large one to bestow on any man or boy who has not done something special to deserve it.

(γ.) The education given in charity schools is seldom good of its kind. The teachers are apt to be feeble and inactive, being paid by fixed salaries, and having no motive for exertion. The boys are almost invariably spiritless.

(δ.) The benefit of the charity reaches but a very small number compared with that which it might reach if applied to education only, and not also to food and clothing. Everything is done for a few, and nothing for a much larger number, whose claims, so far as anyone has claims, are quite as great. Thus Cheetham's Hospital in Manchester, with a revenue of 3,000*l.* per annum, educates about 100 children; Henshaw's Blue School at Oldham, with 2,300*l.* per annum, educates, on an average, 100; the Blue School at Warrington, with 1,000*l.* per annum, educates 40; Old Swinford Hospital (in Worcestershire) with 3,500*l.* per annum, educates 120. Now, supposing the prime cost of a sound commercial education in a school which is self supporting, but has its buildings rent free, to be 5*l.* per annum (in many schools it is only 4*l.*), Cheetham's Hospital, if it spent nothing in feeding, lodging, and clothing, would be able to educate gratis 500 boys, the Oldham school 400, the Warrington school 160,* and Old Swinford Hospital 600. And supposing, what it is probably quite fair to suppose, that the parents of the boys in these schools could almost all afford to pay 2*l.* a year for their children's education, so that 3*l.* on each boy would represent the difference between the quality of the elementary education which the parent could or would pay for, and the superior education which the endowment would enable us to offer at the reduced price of 2*l.*, instead of the market price of 5*l.*, then Cheetham's Hospital, charging a fee of 2*l.*, would be able to give a superior education to (say) 830 children; the Oldham school to 730; the Warrington School to 270; and Old Swinford Hospital to 1,000.

There are a great many of these "blue schools," as they are called, scattered over the counties which I visited, and in every or almost every case there seemed reason to believe that it would be a public benefit to abolish the boarding and clothing system, and spend the money on teaching only. In Lancashire, for instance, we have the very wealthy foundation at Oldham (mentioned above), providing food and dress for 100 boys, some of whom, according to what I was told, belong to the middle rather than to the lower class, while there is no public provision whatever for superior education in the town, the so-called grammar school being worse than any hedge school in the country. I believe it to be well managed, but how much more good it might do if applied to improve education in this rough town of 80,000 people. In Worcestershire, again, the hospital at Old Swinford, (the parish in which Stourbridge town stands) clothes and boards boys from certain parishes in the neighbourhood to the number of 120. If applied in the manner in which the Dick Bequest, in Scotland, is applied,† to improve elementary education throughout the country—now in a deplorably low state—the benefit to the labouring class would be incomparably greater. The case of the Charity School, at Caerleon, in Monmouthshire is similar. Like that at Old Swinford, it is said to be managed with care and probity. It spends a gross income of about 1,100*l.* in educating the boys and girls of this one village free of all charge, finding books for them, clothing 60, apprenticing some; while in all the county there are but three grammar schools (one of them now an elementary school), and elementary education is in most places at an exceedingly low ebb. If this 1,100*l.* were united with some other useless charities, such as the almshouse and dole charity in Usk and some of the charities in Abergavenny and Monmouth town, it might do more than any one who has not read the Dick Bequest reports will readily believe to elevate the parish schools of Monmouthshire at large.

* In calculating these numbers, I have made considerable deductions from the gross income of each of these charities, not being able to ascertain the precise net income.

† See General Report, chap. vi., "Education in the Rural Districts."

The general conclusion to which all that I heard and saw seemed to point was that it would be desirable to have a searching inquiry made into the state and working of these various charities, and that the probable result of such an inquiry would be to show that many of them might with advantage be diverted from their present purposes and applied to improve the education of the poor.

APPENDIX B.

Letter from the Principal of Owens College, Manchester, respecting the proposed Extension of that Institution.

Sir, Owens College, Manchester, 29th April 1867.

In a letter which I had the honour of addressing to the Schools Inquiry Commission in August 1865, I pointed out what seemed to me to be the capital hindrance in the way of the higher education in Manchester, the early age at which youths are here withdrawn from school to business. At the same time I stated my belief that an opinion was slowly gaining ground that a practice injurious to the teaching of the schools, and still more hurtful to the development of such institutions as Owens College, was not even advantageous from the business point of view.

The conviction which I then expressed is so forcibly confirmed by what passed at a meeting held a few weeks since in the town-hall of this city, that I take the liberty of drawing your attention to it, and of at the same time rendering more complete the account which, on your invitation, I have furnished of the actual condition of Owens College.

The trustees, having no power to employ any part of Mr. Owens' bequest in the purchase or erection of buildings, hired a large house, which was converted to the uses of a college with as much success as the case admitted of. This house was afterwards purchased and presented to the trustees by one of their number, and an excellent laboratory was built. Though not ill adapted to our wants in the early years of our foundation, the main building was defective, both within and without, in many all but indispensable appliances of a college; and the time was always contemplated when the growth of our numbers would warrant us in an appeal to the public of Manchester and the neighbouring towns for funds wherewith to erect college buildings of sufficient extent and appropriate character.

Accordingly, in February of this year a meeting was held in the Town Hall under the presidency of the Mayor of Manchester. We were able to show that for five years past the number of ordinary students (that is, of students in the day classes) had averaged 115; that the number of evening students during the same period had averaged 294; and that in the day classes the proportion had been steadily growing of those who were *bonâ fide* students, not members of an occasional class, but persons passing through a systematic course of study. We stated that not only had we almost reached the highest point of prosperity possible in our actual buildings, but that the efficiency of the work we were doing was seriously impaired by the inadequate character of the appliances we possessed. We further strengthened our appeal by stating our belief, or at least our hope, that the prejudice was slowly giving way which had prevailed so widely against supplementing the school by the college in the case of those who are to be men of business. We concluded by laying before the meeting an outline of a plan which we had prepared for erecting appropriate college buildings, and for adding very considerably to our scheme of studies, more especially in the direction of applied and experimental science.

In the discussion which followed not only was our appeal generously recognised and enforced by the several speakers, but in particular the justice of our anticipation was confirmed that the time was not distant when the feeling would have died out that an academical training unfitted men for business, or that to make a good banker, or merchant, or manufacturer, it was necessary that the business training should begin at 14 years of age. The contrary of these opinions was emphatically maintained by gentlemen singularly qualified

to represent the experience, and the enlightened opinion, of Manchester and the surrounding country.

In conclusion the scheme offered by us was in its main features cordially approved and taken up, and in order to carry it into effect a Committee was appointed to raise a sum which should not be less than 100,000*l.* and should, if possible, amount to 150,000*l.* Subscriptions were announced at the meeting amounting to 24,000*l.*; notwithstanding the unusual depression of our trade, and though no general canvass has yet been begun, the fund already approaches 40,000*l.*, and there is good reason to hope that our plan will be accomplished.

Allow me to append to this letter a paper in further explanation of an undertaking which is destined, as I trust, to have no slight influence on the higher education of this district, and believe that I am, sir,

Your obedient faithful servant,

Jas. Bryce, Esq. J. Gouge Greenwood.

Owens College Extension.

"Owens College was founded by the munificent bequest of Mr. John Owens, merchant, of Manchester, who bequeathed the bulk of his property to trustees to found 'an institution for providing or aiding the means of instructing and improving young persons of the male sex (and being of an age not less than 14 years) in such branches of learning and science as were then and might be thereafter usually taught in the English Universities.'

"The college was opened on the 12th of March 1851. The number of students in the ordinary day classes in the first session was 62; in the present session it is 110;* and the average number for the last five years has been 115. In 1852–53 evening classes were started, in which instruction is given in almost all the subjects taught in the day classes. The number of evening students has increased from 28 in 1852–53 to 279† in 1866–67, and the average number for the last five years has been 295. It thus appears that the total number of persons taught in the college has averaged 400 during the last five sessions. The number of day classes held has increased from 15 in 1852 to 32 in the present year, and the number of evening classes from 2 to 25.

"From its foundation Owens College has been affiliated to the University of London. More than 130 of its students have matriculated in the University, and about one half of these have proceeded to the higher examinations for degrees.

"It would probably be found that in no institution of the kind in the kingdom are so many persons under instruction in so confined a space. The class-rooms are too few in number, some of them are unduly crowded, and others are quite unfit for the use to which they are put.

"It is, then, not too much to affirm that the utmost measure of success attainable in the present buildings has been reached. The trustees have no power to spend any portion of the original endowment in the purchase of land or the erection of buildings. Unless ampler and more appropriate accommodation is provided for the college, future sessions may witness a decline as steady as its growth has been; for in the early years of such institutions not to go forward is to go back.

"The erection of new buildings is not, however, all that is needed to enable Owens College to fulfil the objects of its foundation. The proper function of the college may be defined as being to furnish the highest general education leading to degrees in Arts and Science, and the special training required for professional and mercantile life. To accomplish this a very considerable extension of the scheme of studies is called for. Nor can there be a doubt what the prevailing character of this extension should be. Due provision being made for the pursuit of classics and mathematics, and of the other branches of what may be called the older university studies, it is obvious that the special characteristic of a college for the manufacturing districts should be the study of experimental and applied science.

"The college already possesses Professorships of Greek and Latin (including the Greek Testament), Hebrew and Arabic, English Language and Literature,

* In the present session (1867-8) it is 170.
† In the present session (1867-8) it is 325.

French and German, History, Mathematics, Natural Philosophy, Logic, &c., Political Economy, Jurisprudence, Chemistry, and Natural History. To these it is proposed to add:

" 1. A separate Professorship of Latin and Comparative Grammar.

" 2. At least one Professorship of Engineering; and, if possible, of Surveying and Architecture.

" 3. A Professorship of Applied Geology and Mining.

" 4. A Professorship of Astronomy and Meteorology.

" It would be necessary, further, to provide most of these chairs with all the apparatus for complete and successful study; to set aside considerable sums for the extension and regular maintenance of the Library, and of the Physical and Natural History Departments; and, above all, to place the Chemical Department in a position of efficiency worthy of the present state of the science, and of its importance in relation to the interests of this district.

" With these additions and extensions the college would begin to assume the proportions and to possess the substantial advantages of a University for the manufacturing districts. The experience of Glasgow proves that academical institutions may flourish in the heart of a mercantile and manufacturing society; and the munificence with which a subscription for erecting new university buildings has been recently commenced shows not more the liberality of the people of Glasgow than their sense of the benefits which the university has conferred upon their city."

[P. S., January 1868.—A Professorship of Engineering has now actually been endowed, and the Trustees are about to appoint the first Professor.

The Natural History department of the College has recently received an important prospective endowment. The Manchester Natural History Society has dissolved itself, and has settled its large and valuable museum, and the greater part of its property, which is very considerable, upon trusts as an endowment, in the Extended College, for the promotion of the study of Natural History, and for the due maintenance and augmentation of the museum under skilled curatorship.

J. G. G.]

APPENDIX C.

Letter from a Schoolmaster giving his Experience of Assistant Masters.*

Sir,

I have been in the habit of employing, as under-masters, graduates of some University—generally a Scotch University, and trained certificated masters of a high class. The latter generally came to me from Battersea, or the Borough Road Training College. But a few years ago I happened to open a quite new vein; in fact, the vein of the regular school assistant, the young, (and sometimes old or middle-aged) man, who has drifted into this kind of work from want of ability or strength of will to gain a footing in a trade or profession. These men—and there are thousands of them—have in many cases been educated at some good school, and have even had a year or two at some University; but they have never been able to rise to anything like a feeling of the importance or necessity of accurate scholarship. Nor are their teaching powers superior; in fact, they have no idea whatever of *teaching*. All they can do, and all they do do, is *hearing lessons*.

There is one case, the details of which I remember very distinctly—a young man of about two-and-twenty, of fair manners, "gentlemanly" appearance, and generally presentable ways. He had been the sole assistant-master in a grammar school in the north of England—a grammar school of fair reputation. I wrote to the head-master of this grammar school, and was informed that Mr. —— had been a very good master—had taught what is called "junior Latin"—had taken a "Virgil" class, and had prepared pupils for the Oxford

* This letter was addressed to me by one of the ablest and most successful private schoolmasters whom I met with.

local examinations. I therefore considered him quite equal to the work I had for him, which lay in some of the lowest forms. In the course of the first week two or three suspicious signs showed themselves which made me rather uneasy. For example, he had written on the black board the word *comparitive* (*sic*); and he appeared to me to look rather unappreciative and restless when I one day taught a class in his presence a page of Ellis's Latin Exercises. This was one of the subjects he had to teach. It occurred to me that it would be well to ask him to write out the night before the page which the class had for next day; and I volunteered to correct any "minor errors" he might have. The page was one between the 12th and the 20th. He did so. His version of the page contained *fourteen* errors of the worst description; errors which no fairly-taught boy of ten ought to commit. Among these were *hominoram, viribus* (for the dat. pl. of *vir*), *surgaverat,* and other fine specimens of "junior" Latinity. Of course I immediately looked out for a successor to him. I was, however, still unfortunate enough to follow the same vein. I could find no one by the private means I usually employ, and my advertisements called up letters in which there was a fair variety of careless spelling and weak composition. I selected two or three of the best. In an interview with one of these I proposed that as a kind of examination he should write out a page of Ellis. He accepted the proposal cheerfully. I left him for an hour. On my return he had not written a word; and he was obliged to admit that he was unequal even to that very *junior* test. The same test was politely declined—not from a feeling of offended dignity, but confessedly from inability—by a B.A. of Trinity College, Dublin. He said he had forgotten his junior Latin!

I believe from what I have heard from other heads of schools that there is a perfect army of such men, who travel from school to school of the lower "middle-class," and "train" the boys committed to their care in every kind of blunder and inaccuracy.

But I do not think this the greatest evil that haunts English schools and diminishes their power. There is one which is to be found in every school in the kingdom, from Eton down to the cheapest school for the poorer classes. Until this evil is recognized and the right means taken for its cure and future prevention, Government may issue a commission every year; and no good will come of them. The prime evil under which *all* schools without exception labour, is *want of power.* That is, they are under-officered. In the public schools there are too many boys in each form, generally two or three times more than the master can do justice to; in the private schools, where the *proportion* of masters to pupils is much more favourable to the interests of the latter, the private schoolmasters take care to put themselves on an equality of inefficiency, by teaching too many subjects, and by taking too many boys of too many different ages, and at too many different stages of advancement in too many different subjects. What is the reason why the education of the majority of boys in Great Britain is a failure? Simply that there has been no one to *see* that every boy does his work, and that he does it in the *best* style. Even if there were nothing done of what is called *teaching;* but if every schoolmaster could *see* that every boy did his best, the mental and moral effects of the attention and notice on the part of the master and of the constant efforts "to do his best" on the part of the boy would be incalculable. At present, and I am sure that this is the case in nine schools out of every ten, it is a lottery whether a boy is "heard his lesson;" and he often leaves it undone altogether *on chance* or leaves it *to chance* to get a little help to enable him, not to satisfy the fair demands of his own conscience and of his master, but to "pull through." The subjective element, the constant effort to do one's best, is the prime element of education, is in fact of itself education, and the best and highest education in the world. The corresponding objective element—the necessity—supplied by the presence and authority of the master, of doing one's best, ought to exist in every school in the highest degree of power and ought to supplement all that is wanting in the boy of the former element. Omnipresent encouragement and cheer, all-sufficient force to compel, these constitute the ideal school. When one thinks of the "conspicuous absence" of these in almost every school, when one thinks of the numerous causes at work to prevent even a weak growth of these, one must either laugh horribly or be very near to the melting mood. The result is what we know. A large number of boys are more or less neglected; and they form moral and

mental habits of the loosest, most irregular and inaccurate kind. In fact, their training and discipline is not a training to strength, clearness and self-respect, but to weakness, shuffling and slovenliness of thought and expression. What would be thought of a locomotive establishment which boasted that two out of every ten locomotives turned out by it were good, while three were only fair and the rest useless? We are an uneducated people; but, uneducated as we are, I would rather see introduced into *all* schools the Philistine principle of paying for results than have things continue as they are at present. Impracticable! absurd! shout a chorus of schoolmasters. I don't know about that. One good immediate effect would be that no schoolmaster would take a boy without a definite *limitation* as to what he proposed to teach him. At present, the private schoolmaster is too amenable to the whim of the parent, who asks for Natural Philosophy, Botany, Natural History, two or three languages, two or three mathematical subjects, and a large group of other subjects included under the all-embracing term *English* to be taught his boy; while public schoolmasters are far too much subjected to the school boy's laziness. There are several other helps towards the same great end. One is to make the salaries of schoolmasters higher, and to do all in the power of Society and the State to elevate his social standing (though indeed schoolmasters could do this for themselves, if they would endeavour to cease being mere *Dominies*); another is to have training colleges for middle-class teachers, and these, if *begun* by Government, would quickly pay as a money speculation; and a third is to erect large schools, where there are plenty of masters, where the forms are properly graduated and where there is a well-organized system of promotion for each boy.

I am, sir, yours, &c.

APPENDIX D.

Answers to Questions on Educational Subjects.*

I.

Question 1. *What is your opinion of the utility of educational endowments generally?*

Question 2. *From what you know of endowed schools, do you incline to attribute their frequent inefficiency to any, and, if so, to which of the following causes?*

(*a.*) *Restrictions, local or others, on the benefits of the endowment.*
(*b.*) *Restrictions on the subjects of instruction.*
(*c.*) *Restrictions on the choice of, or a bad mode of appointing, trustees.*
(*d.*) *Over interference on the part of trustees, limiting the head master's discretion.*
(*e.*) *Negligent administration by trustees.*
(*f.*) *A bad mode of appointing the head or other masters.*
(*g.*) *Restrictions on the choice of masters.*

2. All these causes have their effect, more or less. I should add to them the inveterate habit of permitting the master's interests to outweigh those of the scholars. There should be a power to remove the master for inefficiency, though not proved otherwise that by the decline of the school. Such power should be vested in some visitor, independent of the trustees, for they would labour under much difficulty in dealing with a nominee of themselves, or of their predecessors whose feelings they probably represent. The same authority might sanction the allowance of a retiring pension, if there are sufficient funds. I must add

* This and the two succeeding sets of answers contain extracts from the answers given by persons, most of them schoolmasters or schoolmistresses, to whom a printed paper of questions was sent, inviting them to express their opinions on the points raised in it. In making a selection from the answers returned, which were very voluminous, I have endeavoured to let every shade of opinion be fairly represented, and have therefore inserted much which is at variance with the conclusions my own observation led me to form, omitting, however, mere expressions of opinion unsupported by any reason or argument. I may remark that a considerably greater number of sensible answers were received from schoolmistresses than from schoolmasters.

that the mismanagement of trustees arises mostly from negligence, ignorance, or want of resolution, and seldom from wilful corruption.

I think there ought to be two or three *ex-officio* trustees, and the rest chosen by some public representative body, *not* by the trustees themselves.

(*c*) The indifference of the governing body, whether trustees or visitors, is another cause of the inefficiency of the smaller grammar schools.

Question 3. *What remedies can you suggest for these or any other evils incident to endowed schools?*

3. Frequent elections of trustees by parties interested in the welfare of the school.

To revise the constitution of schools as required by changes of circumstances and according to modern ideas.

Active inspection, such as is given in national schools by the clergyman or committee. Power of visitors or trustees to remove masters and to frame statutes.

Question 4. *Are there any, and if so, what objections to making education gratuitous?*

4. Masters are not so much encouraged. Parents are rendered indifferent. Children get an education unsuited to them.

Question 5. *If the education is not gratuitous, what portion ought the endowment received by the head master to bear to his fees* (e.g., *one-half or less*)*?*

5. I would not wish the masters income from endowment to exceed one-third of his whole income.

One of the first steps towards making our smaller schools efficient is to make the stipends of all the masters dependent on the prosperity of the school. Half from endowment, half from fees, for headmasters would (I think) answer.

Question 6. *What fees do you think may fairly be paid—*

(*a.*) *By labourers and small farmers for an elementary English education?*

(*b.*) *By tradesmen and the poorer professional men for a plain* (*English and commercial*) *education?*

Question 7. *What is the most useful and least pervertible form an endowment can take?*

(*a.*) *Freehold site and school-house alone.*

(*b.*) *Stipend to head master or to masters generally.*

(*c.*) *Exhibitions* (*α*) *to be held at the school or* (*β*) *from the school to a great public school or university.*

(*d.*) *Provision for instruction free or at reduced rates to a certain number of children.*

7. (*d.*) Such endowment needs to be very carefully watched in its administration. It is well that it should constitute a separate trust to be administered by *other* hands than those who control the general administration of the school.

I think buildings the best. It is desirable that they should be such as boys may take some pride in. Exhibitions are liable to be more than thrown away, when there is not a sufficient number of scholars to raise a competition for them; particularly if they are of such amount as to draw to the university persons who have no qualifications or natural fitness.

Question 8. *Would a regular system of inspection of endowed schools be* (*a*) *useful in itself,* (*b*) *desired by trustees,* (*c*) *agreeable to parents?*

8. (*a*) It would be specially useful and necessary (as a general rule) in schools *well endowed*—not *so* much so in those in which masters depended on own

exertions *entirely*, or almost entirely; but if the head master is the right man in the right place, HE is the *best inspector*.

It would be useful; (*b*) Trustees would probably differ about it, but by degrees would desire it; (*c*) Parents would be indifferent except as regards the good or bad effect on the school.

Question 9. *In the case of small endowed schools in rural districts, should you be disposed—*

(*a.*) *Retaining the endowment in its present form and locality—*

(*α.*) *To convert the school into a National (Privy Council) school.*

(*β.*) *To keep the school as it is, supplementing the endowment by fees.*

(*b.*) *Changing the character of the endowment—*

(*α.*) *To apply the endowments of several small schools to the foundation of one large central school in each district.*

(*β.*) *To convert the endowment into exhibitions, tenable by the pupils of National schools at a town grammar school?*

Question 10. *In the case of endowed schools in mercantile towns, hitherto chiefly or exclusively classical, are you disposed—*

(*a.*) *Retaining the general system of the school, to give greater prominence to practical branches of study* (e.g., *arithmetic and modern languages*).

(*b.*) *To establish a new ("modern" or "commercial") school under the same roof and same head master as the old classical school, but otherwise distinct from it.*

(*c.*) *To devote part of the endowment to the erection of a new commercial school altogether distinct from the old classical one?*

10. (*a.*) Would generally be the most practicable course. I do not like *b*, it lacks cohesion and creates invidious distinctions.

(*c.*) Would be good when the endowment is large enough to provide two distinct establishments.

In small grammar schools (say having 100 or less boys) I should adopt course (*a*), still leaving provision for the few boys who intend proceeding to the universities.

(*c.*) No, I believe this is objectionable; the head master takes the classical school, and the commercial school falls down to the level of inferior private schools; and hence professional men and larger tradesmen remove their children to the large proprietary schools, which exist through the present defective state of the grammar schools.

Question 11. *Do you believe that much good can be done by a system of evening classes in town schools?*

III.

Question 12. *What advantages, if any, do you conceive proprietary schools* (i.e. *schools neither endowed nor the property of the master,*) *to possess over private schools?*

12. I think as a general rule proprietary schools are the best kind of schools, but where there are old grammar schools they might be advantageously transferred to proprietors, who should have the privilege of nominating scholars who should be admitted on more advantageous terms than the other boys, and who should also elect the trustees by whom the schoolmaster should be nominated, and who should exercise a general superintendence over the school. To secure the fitness of such trustees I would have them selected from the graduates, magistrates, and aldermen of the town and its vicinity. Without this there would be danger of improper interference with the master.

P.S.—On further reflection I think that the trustee qualification should be an Oxford, Cambridge, or London degree. It seems to me that no other qualification would in these parts at least secure the master from improper treatment at the hands of trustees.*

* This answer is given by a clergyman of large experience in a manufacturing town.

12. The advantages of proprietary schools lie in a *more careful* management since many interests are involved. There are checks (*a*) to the quackery of private schools, and (*b*) to the remissness of endowed schools.

They are under more check, and are more likely to keep pace with the times than endowed schools. Over private schools they have the advantage of freer interchange of character and opinion among the boys.

Question 13. *In proprietary schools, which is the best governing body?*

(*a.*) *A commercial company* (*limited*).

(*b.*) *A body of the parents of scholars, holding shares and having the right of nomination.*

(*c.*) *A public local board, municipal or other.*

(*d.*) *The members of a particular religious body or their representatives.*

13. The best governing body for public schools seems to be a body of directors chosen from among the shareholders, whoever they may be. Under the supposed circumstances it is impossible to have any other.

13. (*c*) (*d.*) Either of these, according as the object of the school trust is religious or secular.

13. Proprietary schools are among the best things of our age. They are usually managed by a committee of shareholders, and the shareholders are most, if not all of them, parents, and warmly interested in the school. They therefore conduct it, as all schools ought to be conducted, in the interest of the scholars, and when men are in earnest they are likely to succeed.

Question 14. *To what extent should a board, however constituted, be empowered to control—*

(*a.*) *The discipline of the school, especially the expulsion of offenders.*

(*b.*) *The instruction given.*

(*c.*) *The appointment and dismissal of the under masters.*

(*d.*) *The financial administration?*

14. (*a.*) The discipline of each class should be left to the master. In very flagrant cases of breach of discipline the head master should have control. It is dangerous, though perhaps unavoidable, to allow an appeal to directors.

(*b.*) Directors should advise with head master, and they will, I presume, always insist on a power of *veto* or of command, but the teachers should be best judges.

(*c.*) Should appoint and dismiss after consultation with head master, but should at same time exercise independent judgment.

(*d.*) Business men best suited for this, and in case of *proprietary* schools the directors will naturally claim such right.

14. (*a.*) Only by way of appeal.

(*b.*) Only to the extent of defining the nature of the instruction given.

(*c.*) Not at all.

(*d.*) Wholly in conjunction with the head master.

14. I believe it is found by experience that matters of discipline and instruction are best confided to the principal, and that his opinion has very great weight in the appointment and removal of under masters. I may compare this to the rural police, where the chief constable is elected and removable by the magistrates, but has uncontrolled power to appoint and remove all subordinates. If the magistrates interfered herein they could not in justice hold him responsible for them. The financial affairs are, of course, managed by the committee.

The great function of the board is the appointment and dismissal (at their own absolute discretion) of the head master. The head master should appoint and dismiss all under-masters, and should have in his own hands the discipline of the school and the expulsion of offenders. The board should administer the finance.

(*a.*) The governing body should not give up so important a branch of supremacy as that of receiving appeals from the sentence of the masters. Subject to such appeal the head masters should expel.

(*b.*) Frequent interference with the head master is most objectionable.

(*c.*) The master should be appointed by the governing body on the recommendation of the head master; but no master should be dismissed except by the governing body.
(*d.*) Entirely with the governing body.

Question 15. *Of these functions, which, if any, should be entrusted to a committee of the whole governing body?*

IV.

Question 16. *What are the respective merits, in point both of a boy's moral character and mental culture, of the following modes of education:—*
(*a.*) *A day school—*
(*α.*) *Public.*
(*β.*) *Private.*
(*b.*) *A boarding school—*
(*α.*) *Public.*
(*β.*) *Attended by day scholars also* (e.g., *a grammar school where boarders are taken*).
(*γ.*) *Altogether private.*

Question 17. *Having regard to the exigencies of business life, do you think that it is either possible or wise to prolong the education—*
(*a.*) *Of shop or office boys beyond the age of* 13?
(*b.*) *Of boys intended for a mercantile life beyond the age of* 15?

17. Yes, if you have regard to the moral and intellectual character of the future man. No, if you look merely to his success in business?

Question 18. *Is it desirable to give a regular training to persons intending to become teachers—*
(*a.*) *In the art of teaching.*
(*b.*) *In methods of discipline and handling boys?*
If so, can you suggest any means by which this may be done?

18. Decidedly. I think that this would be best effected by the Government placing a small annual sum at the disposal of the universities with a view to the carrying out of this object.

V.

Question 19. *What is your own experience of the practical working of the following classes of charities?*
(*a.*) *Doles of money.*
(*b.*) *Doles in kind* (e.g., *of bread or clothing*).
(*c.*) *Almshouses.*
(*d.*) *Charity schools, where boys are fed and clothed as well as taught.*
(*e.*) *Money expended in putting boys out as apprentices?*

19. I have not had many opportunities of forming on opinion. I think (*e*) very injurious, and would recommend the commissioners to consider whether charities founded for this purpose might not be advantageously expended in promoting the education of boys intended for business, as for instance in establishing commercial schools in connection with county grammar schools.

19. (*a.*) & (*b.*) Only good when given by those regularly in the habit of visiting the poor.

19. (*a.*) I dont think they do harm in small sums, but they are not desirable to be perpetuated.
(*b.*) More objectionable than money.
(*c.*) Valuable.
(*d.*) As ragged schools good, otherwise they are unfavourable to independence of character.
(*e.*) The utility of this kind of endowment has diminished much of late years.

19. I do not think highly of any of them.

19. (*a.*) (*b.*) (*c.*) These are all very liable to abuse. Everything depends on the administration. If they are administered as a prudent, charitable private person does his charities, they are good.

VI.

Question 20. *To what extent is it* (*a*) *possible,* (*b*) *desirable, to give in schools a definite dogmatic instruction in religious truth?*

Question 21. *Supposing religion to be a regular part of the school work, which of the following plans does your knowledge of the feelings of the various religious bodies lead you to believe most conducive to the general welfare of the school?—*

(*a.*) *Teaching Scripture and the Church catechism to all pupils.*

(*b.*) *Teaching Scripture to all, the Church catechism to members of the Church of England only.*

(*c.*) *Teaching Scripture only to all.*

(*d.*) *Admitting at fixed times the clergy of any or every religious body to give instruction to pupils, members of their respective flocks?*

21. I do not find that the teaching of the Church catechism is objected to where it has been usually taught, but its introduction in schools where it has not been used would undoubtedly be resisted. (*c.*) Would excite no objection. It seems to me that the religious instruction given in the school should be under the control of the head master, and therefore that (*d*) would be objectionable and unpracticable, on account of the impossibility of making proper arrangements. The religious teaching, if given by ministers, must be given simultaneously, and each minister would require a separate class room.*

(*d.*) Better *all if any,* but, though a clergyman, I do not see the necessity of being admitted in that capacity, as we can always have *direct* access to the young persons belonging to our respective flocks.

(*a.*) Should be the general rule, with relaxations which might even go further than (*c.*) I would not examine a young Jew in the New Testament. Give me the teacher who, knowing the weakness of his man's judgment, but hoping that sincere faith may consist with much dogmatic error, will endeavour to keep up unity of spirit in the bond of peace.

Question 22. *Are differences of creed the cause of any, and if so of what, difficulties—*

(*a.*) *In the selection of trustees or governors of schools.*

(*b.*) *In the appointment of masters.*

(*c.*) *As producing ill-feeling or mutual distrust among the pupils?*

Question 23. *If they are, can you suggest any remedy?*

VII.

Question 24. *Should you expect good results from any of the following expedients—*

(*a.*) *The establishment of a Government Board to superintend endowed schools, in aid of the existing trustees.*

(*b.*) *The institution of a system of examination, at stated periods, of which private and proprietary schools might be invited to avail themselves.*

(*c.*) *The institution of a body empowered to grant certificates of fitness to teachers.*

(*d.*) *The establishment in the Universities of professorships of the art of teaching (the German Pädagogik), whose lectures should be attended by candidates for masterships in the more important schools.*

(*e.*) *The establishment of training colleges of a higher grade than those controlled by the Privy Council.*

(*f.*) *The registration of schools or schoolmasters.*

24. (*a.*) The functions of such a board should be carefully defined. They should include the power of removal (*see* qn. 2) such as is exercised by the Poor Law Board beneficially, and (considering its delicate nature) satisfactorily.

* This answer is given by a clergyman.

The *local* board, visitors, governors, or trustees *must* be the active governing body; but a court or board to which appeals might at a little *cost* or trouble be made, would be useful.

Question 25. *If expedient (b) were adopted, by whom should the examiners be chosen—*

(*a.*) *By a Government Board.*
(*b.*) *By the Universities.*
(*c.*) *By a representative scholastic body.*

25. (*b.*) Most schools have a meeting for the distribution of prizes, &c. after an examination conducted by some friend of the master. I think the Universities might with advantage undertake the appointment of public examiners.

Question 26. *If objections were made to such a system, would they come from—*

(*a.*) *Parents.*
(*b.*) *Schoolmasters.*
(*c.*) *The general public.*

26. I think that there would be no objections except from ignorant and incompetent schoolmasters, and these might very safely be disregarded.

Question 27. *Is there any other educational topic with regard to which you can give the Commission the benefit of any facts known to you, or any views of your own?*

27. I think that an Act of Parliament to enable patrons and trustees of grammar schools to transfer their interest in them to limited liability companies under certain conditions of inspection and election of managers, &c., would effect almost everything that is desirable in the way of improvement of middle-class education. Many operatives would become shareholders if the price of shares were not too high.

27. The thing most needed in endowed schools is to give the trustees absolute power of dismissal over the head master; with the like power in a Government board when the trustees are unwilling to exert it.

Answers to Questions relating to the Education of Boys.

I.

Question 1. *What do you consider to be the value, as a* means of mental training, *of the following subjects—*

(*a.*) *The grammar of Latin and Greek.*
(*b.*) *The practice of composition in Latin and Greek.*
(*c.*) *The grammar of French or German,* (i.e.) *can it be made to do for boys what Latin grammar is supposed to do?*
(*d.*) *Geometry and algebra.*
(*e.*) *History.*
(*f.*) *Natural science* (e.g., *chemistry or physics*).
(*g.*) *Natural history* (e.g., *botany or geology*).
(*h.*) *Drawing.*
(*i.*) *Music.*
(*j.*) *English literature, studied systematically?*

1. (*b.*) Prose very valuable. Prose translation valuable chiefly to enable a lad to appreciate the beauties of English poetry; yet I cannot but think the same end could be equally well attained, along with other advantages of a practical nature, by turning English poetry into French and German poetry.

(*c.*) Properly taught, I conceive these languages might do *nearly* as well; still, the utter dissimilarity of idiom between Latin and Greek on the one hand, and any modern European language on the other, must always give the dead languages an advantage, as a means of exercising the reflective and critical faculties.

(*e.*) To kindle world-wide associations, to supply healthy food for imagination, enlarge the sympathies, and humanise the feelings, history taught ably and enthusiastically in connexion with geography, might be of the utmost value, but I am not sanguine enough to think that such teaching could be enjoyed at many schools. The meagre facts, dry names, and dates that usually take the place of history in schools, seem to me of no value whatever, and only serve to repel minds that might otherwise derive great benefit from its study. Would not biography be an interesting form in which to initiate a lad into the pleasures and profits of historical knowledge? A few isolated biographies in a good teacher's hand might be made to furnish central figures around which to group vivid historical tableaux.

(*c.*) By French a good deal, and by German a great deal may be done; but it depends mainly upon the teacher, and the chances are that both master and pupil will hurry on for mere practical purposes.

1. Whether it be from the nature of the subject, or that we possess complete and well-prepared apparatus in that subject, the study of language, and of the two most highly organized European languages, seems the most valuable means of training the mind to all kinds of mental power and virtue.

(*c.*) German in a small degree; French in almost no degree.

(*d.*) These seem almost solely to cultivate the power of *attention*. (*e.*) The study of history can only benefit a tolerably mature mind.

(*j.*) I am inclined to think a great deal might be done by a systematic training in the English language from the earliest time pursued with the study of the literature and of the history. This would probably come nearer to the study of the ancient languages.

1. (*d.*) Arithmetic and other branches of mathematics may be taught in two ways:—

(i.) As the *art* of obtaining certain numerical results by following certain given rules (like a calculating-machine).

(ii.) As a *science*.

(i.) "Doing" sums, equations, propositions of Euclid, &c. is easy work for teachers and taught, but of little use in mental training.

(ii.) Learning to understand and apply the scientific principles of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, &c., requires laborious teaching, and is a severe but invigorating mental exercise.

The former method "pays" better in common examinations; and so long as the business of a schoolmaster is not so much to educate as to prepare boys and girls for examination, will be generally practised.

The latter method exercises the mind strongly, and should therefore in the case of younger children be proceeded with cautiously.

Anyone who has in after life to practise a branch of the *art*, for instance a surveyor or banker's clerk, will not do so the worse for having previously mastered the science.

1. (*c.*) The study of Greek and Latin renders the study of French and German easier to a boy, but to boys ignorant of Greek and Latin I think French and German are almost if not quite as effective as a mental training as Greek or Latin.

(*d.*) Much depends on the teacher, but I believe that when sufficiently taught mathematics are more powerful as an instrument of mental training than the classics.

(*e.*) It would be unpardonable for a boy to know nothing of history, but, as generally taught, I do not think it of much value in mental training.

1. (*b.*) Very great, if prose composition, because it disciplines the mind to examine carefully the idea conveyed in the words of one language with a view to the correct expression of it in the words of another, and thus educes certain mental faculties, and particularly imparts the power of accurate and vigorous expression in the vernacular. Verse composition is, I think, of little use; it is

only the result of a mental trick. Perhaps in some cases it may refine the mind, but then probably only at the expense of some valuable faculties.

(*c.*) Certainly not, the languages are not so perfect, and the fact of their being living languages impairs their value as a means of mental training.

(*d.*) Geometry great, algebra (if elementary) trifling. Geometry disciplines the reason, making its processes clear and accurate. The mere manipulation of algebraical symbols may be useful as regards the result, but of little value as a discipline.

1. (*e.*) No; in men of 40 or 50 years of age, whose judgments are clear, it affords a fine field for mental training, but to youths and young men I think it mostly appears an accumulation of incidents, &c.

(*f.*) Yes, but where are the men to be found to teach these subjects in as severely a logical form as Greek and Latin are now taught and studied?

(*j.*) Much might be done here, but a profitable study could hardly be commenced, except with youths of 16 or 17 years of age, because they must have *some sense* and *judgment* to comprehend the subject matter of the authors.

1. (*a.*) Small, unless studied up to an age when boys can understand and apply their knowledge. The mere *word knowledge*, declensions, conjugations, &c., can be acquired by a child four years old, provided they are taught as an amusement, like many doggrel rhymes, and are in fact much easier to learn than abstract propositions, *e.g.* 5—4=1.

(*b.*) Must depend on knowledge of (*a*), but the simplest practice of composition in Latin and Greek is found to be a most difficult task, and by consequence useful if taught carefully, *e.g.* Henry's first Latin book presents very grave difficulties to boys of 12 to 14 years of age, although a boy might become expert in the book by 11 years of age, but could not from the paradigms form similar sentences. For boys 15 to 18 years of age the subject is of greatest value, provided one master has a small enough class, say six or eight boys.

(*c.*) French and German grammar probably of the same value as Latin and Greek, provided trained masters could be found to teach, and that *word knowledge* is begun early enough.

(*i.*) Unable to say. We find it a great practical inconvenience, one master being required for one boy, who must necessarily be taken from routine class work. Parents insist on 30 per cent. of pupils "learning music."*

Question 2. *What do you conceive to be the value of the following methods of teaching, and in what subjects should each be employed—*

(*a.*) *The committal to memory of rules.*

(*b.*) *Learning by heart the* words *of a text book.*

(*c.*) *Oral lectures, not catechetical.*

(*d.*) *Examination by writing.*

(*e.*) *Learning by heart passages from good authors?*

Question 3. *How far, and by what methods, is it possible to give to boys—*

(*a.*) *Ease and correctness in English composition.*

(*b.*) *A taste for literature.*

(*c.*) *Definite dogmatic instruction in the truths of religion?*

3. (*c.*) I believe to be a fatal mistake. My experience leads me to the conclusion that it is utterly destructive of all real religious feeling in the minds of the pupils. These sacred truths should be reserved for the sacred privacy of home.

3. (*a.*) By frequent written as well as *vivâ voce* idiomatic translations from any language dead or living into English, and by the translation of foreign languages, and the learning by heart of fine passages of English prose together with themes or descriptions of objects, &c.

3. (*a.*) By regular exercises upon familiar subjects given in those proportions Subject outlined with master.

* The answer is given by the master of a private boarding school.

3. (*b.*) This is most probably possible only in certain special cases, and it is much oftener produced in the *family* than in the *school.* The enormous quantity of exciting and bad literature is an additional obstacle in the path of the teacher of to-day.

3. (*c.*) I doubt whether these should be made a part of school instruction. I would have them taught as something separate and of infinitely greater importance than anything else. I would not have the Bible used as a school book. The truths of religion should be taught orally and combined with reading the scriptures as a part of daily worship, not as school routine.

3. (*a.*) One of the most difficult subjects a master has to teach. All class or text books I have used are useless, for I find that it is paucity of ideas, want of information, and not of words, which cause boys to fail in this subject. My boys like composition lessons which are monthly improvised by myself without text book. I may read a fable in prose or verse, the description of an animal, a moral story, description of a town, &c., and then the class is required to write the same in their own way. Those who learn a language have always a good opportunity of acquiring an easy fluent style by being constantly trained in literal (first) and then in free translation, a little licence being allowed the imagination or fancy, to be afterwards severally examined by the professor. Ease and correctness can never be acquired *per se,* they must be accompanied by knowledge laboriously obtained, and then I think most students would express clearly what they understand clearly.

II.

Question 4. *What are the respective advantages, having regard to moral character and mental culture, of—*

(*a.*) *A boarding school—*
- (α) *Altogether private.*
- (β) *Attended by day scholars also.*
- (γ) *Altogether public* (i.e. *a great public school*).

(*b.*) *A day school—*
- (α) *Private.*
- (β) *Public?*

4. A boarding school in which a high and manly tone of feeling is maintained, as in a well-conducted school it can be, is better and safer than a public school, but in the large majority of private schools tyranny, meanness, and impurity abound, unchecked by that public sentiment which in the latter is usually found.*

In all cases much depends upon master, teachers, and class of pupils. In (*a*) there is less danger of mischief from without and there is less interruption. Study is more continuous. In (*b*) absence of pupils makes progress doubtful and delays classes.

In a private school there is more close supervision mentally and morally. The master is dependent upon progress and good behaviour in pupils. A public schoolmaster is independent and can do many beneficial things which a private schoolmaster dare not attempt.

4. (*a*) That it is more especially under the control of the master, and that it is free from the multitudinous distractions incident to day scholars.

(β) There can be no doubt that the intermixture of day scholars adds to the difficulty of maintaining good moral discipline and *pro tanto* of keeping up the classes to the standard of scholarship proposed by their master.

(*c*) Public schools can procure superior talent for assistant masters, and as a rule they can exercise more complete control, but on the other side they can leave the boys to work or not as they please. A clever and industrious boy therefore has great advantages, the idle and dull boy goes to the wall.

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* This answer is given by a private schoolmaster.

4. (β) I think the presence of day scholars an advantage, because they introduce another element from the outside and thus increase the number of influences at work on the scholars. It has a tendency to prevent that narrowness of view which is always found where a number of people live together in the same association, under the same laws, and for the same end. With day scholars too come home views and home influences to modify and correct school views and principles.

(*a*) Both as regards mental culture and the formation of character we should decidedly give our preference to a private boarding school. You have uninterrupted control over the boys. The advantages of this are (1) The subjects of study can be more consecutively handled; (2) You have greater opportunity for becoming acquainted with the mental and moral characteristics of each boy and thereby being enabled to adapt and enforce the necessary discipline; (3) You ensure greater concentration of mind by being enabled to exclude all outside influences so largely calculated to produce mental and moral dissipation. We present the above chiefly as showing what we deem to be the advantages of a private boarding school in contrast with one where day boys are admitted. The following are our reasons for preferring such a school to a large public school. (1) A private school stands or falls according to its own efficiency. This does not apply to the majority of our public schools. (2) On the grounds of its elasticity, by which we mean that it can more readily adapt itself to the progressive spirit of the times. It is less likely to assume that stereotyped form which the recent Commission has discovered to be too characteristic of our large public schools. (3) A private school is not likely to attain to such dimensions as seriously to jeopardise the moral interests of the pupils. There is no necessity of such an extensive delegation of the moral oversight to mere mercenaries.

Question 5. *What are the proper limits, in point of size, of a private boarding school, having regard to—*

(*a.*) *Economy in housekeeping.*
(*b.*) *The payment of an efficient staff of teachers.*
(*c.*) *The proper classification of the scholars.*
(*d.*) *The maintenance of a healthy public spirit among the scholars.*
(*e.*) *The exercise of a moral influence over each boy.*

5. In answering this question, we think it preferable to present our own case. We number about 43 boarders, and employ housekeeper, cook, kitchen-maid, chamber-maid, and man-servant. We are able with the above number of scholars so to classify as to keep the teaching in our own hands with the exception of music, military drill, and the modern languages. We think also that this number affords sufficient scope for the development of such qualities as energy, generosity, self-dependence, &c., all of which we take to be comprehended in the term "public spirit." We feel ourselves capable of making our moral influence felt by each pupil, but at the same time are strongly convinced that any material increase would place this beyond our reach.

5. (*a.*) Not a little depends on the character of the *premises*. A school of 50 or 60 boys may be carried on with great economy, that would probably not be much increased in a school of double the number.

(*b.*) (*c.*) (*d.*) (*e.*) My school, one of 50 or 60 boys, has been carried on with a great degree of success by my predecessor, and all these aims may be successfully attained, provided the master is capable, adapted for, and interested in his work. The number of 20 or below presents serious obstacles on each of these points.

Question 6. *Up to what point is it possible to educate together—*

(*a.*) *Boys who leave school for business at* 14.
(*b.*) *Boys who leave for a profession at* 16.
(*c.*) *Boys who leave for the University at* 18*?*

6. I would make absolutely *no* distinction in their school training. *All* boys should be educated up to the highest standard their mental powers will allow, and this training should include for *each* pupil, classics, mathematics, physics, modern languages, and especially the English language, and literature. The only difference between the boy of 14 and the boy of 18 would be that the former has had four years less mental training than the latter.

6. In the usual English subjects, Latin, French, and mathematics; if the higher subjects, Greek, &c., are began late, they will be learnt all the faster.

6. Probably not beyond the age of 10 or 11, that is, if any attempt is made to give the 14-year boys a "commercial" education. It would, however, be better to educate them with the others up to 14, provided always that they were taught arithmetic thoroughly, the power of writing good English, and of appreciating a good English style, and perhaps English literature.

6. I should make no distinction between the individual members of the classes (*a.*), (*b.*), and (*c.*). The object of a school is to give a good general education, not to train for any specific pursuits; I should have, however, three distinct kinds of education for (*a.*), (*b.*), and (*c.*).

For (*a.*), an education with the English language, studied accurately and critically as its central point, including also mathematics up to (say trigonometry) drawing, one modern language (say French), and perhaps some one branch of physical science; writing and arithmetic must of course be most thoroughly taught.

For (*b.*) I should make Latin the central point; should add to the mathematical course of (*a.*) geometrical and analytical courses, introduce a second modern language (say German), still require English to be thoroughly and critically studied, and keep drawing, writing, and arithmetic, and perhaps physical science, as in (*a.*).

For (*c.*) I should take Latin and Greek as the centre, add to the mathematical of (*b.*) differential calculus; have only one modern language (French), not care so much about English; lay more stress upon classical composition instead of including verse and prose; omit, after a certain time, drawing and writing, and have no physical science taught.

Question 7. *Do you prefer to govern your school by rewards or by punishments, and what are the grounds of your preference?*

7. I would govern a school by *neither*. The moral influence of the teacher and the moral sense of the taught are in themselves amply sufficient to control *any number* of boys. This is not a speculative opinion. I have seen it in active operation for nearly 20 years in a public school of between 300 and 400 boys, and my present school, numbering over 100 boys, is governed exclusively on that system. An occasional imposition and class prizes at the end of the session are subsidiaries, but by no means essential. Corporal punishment is simply an indication of lazy brutality.

7. By neither altogether. Rarely have recourse to rewards, for when the reward has been secured frequently earnestness disappears. No farther by punishments than the detention after time for the completion of work undone or for misconduct; this, being an understood consequence, is accepted with resignation.

7. The whole aim of education must be to create likings, will, and habits. These are only to be created by pleasurable feelings. *Punishments create* nothing; they merely at best bring a boy back into the right track. But beyond all question the only *creative* and *formative* power is to be found in the hope of gaining some good place, prize, or praise.

7. Boys should be taught as far as possible to do their duty without reference to rewards or punishments. I doubt the propriety of rewarding boys for simply doing their duty. When a master has but a few boys to deal with he ought to manage to do without much punishment. If he has a large number

of boys cases will occur when punishment will become necessary. It should be short and summary. Much nonsense has been talked about corporal punishment. I am in favour of it myself, and I believe nine boys out of every ten would prefer it to the more injurious forms of punishments, such as writing long impositions or detention in school.

7. By both; can hardly state my reason as I am often influenced by circumstances, sometimes by *bad temper*. I have observed that children who have been exclusively treated by *rewards* soon go to the bad, whilst others who have had to rough it and who deem themselves lucky if they escape punishment turn out better tempered, and heartier, honester men than the former. As to the employment of one mode over the other, a great deal depends on the master's temperament, and a boy should be trained to do his best from sense of *duty* to himself and parents and not because by doing his duty he will get a reward.

7. So far as we have a system it is one of rewards, crediting each boy with marks per day. These marks are liable to be deducted by irregularities of conduct. Each fortnight the school is divided into three classes: the 1st class have various little privileges, *e. g.*, being at liberty to leave premises every day without any oversight; 2d class is treated as being in a normal condition; 3d class as normal, and have to report themselves at a certain hour during the afternoon, which we have for play, until 5 p.m.

Question 8. *Have you any experience of what is called th monitorial system? If so, what do you think of it?*

III.

Question 9. *Do you find it easy to procure good assistant masters—*
(*a.*) *For classics and mathematics.*
(*b.*) *For foreign languages.*
(*c.*) *For the ordinary English subjects?*

9. I have for the last six or eight years found it difficult to meet with good assistant masters in ordinary English subjects.

9. It is not difficult to get good scholars, but *it is* difficult to get good teachers as assistants.

9. I have felt the difficulty so great that rather than extend my school I have continued to go on single-handed with a little help from pupil teachers.*
I am informed by several gentlemen who have large boarding schools that properly qualified teachers can scarcely be had. Let the Commissioners study the scholastic advertisements and they will perceive that pupil teachers in their *last year are in great request* as assistant masters in boarding schools.

9. The greatest difficulty I have to contend with is that of finding good assistant masters. This difficulty is not so great as regards classics and mathematics.
(*b.*) For foreign languages it is most *difficult* to procure good masters. They are very liable to be deficient in all the points—(*a*) (*b*) (*c*).

(*c.*) In the ordinary English subjects I have found the least difficulty in procuring good masters, having taken ex-pupil teachers who have acquired "the art of teaching."

Question 10. *From what class in society or previous occupation do they chiefly come?*

10. In very few cases brought up to teaching.

10. The greater number of applications have come from young men who had served as pupil teachers in national schools.

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* The answers of a great number of other teachers are to the same effect, almost all of them declaring that they find the greatest difficulty in procuring competent assistants.

Question 11. *If deficient, in which of the following points are they most commonly deficient?*

(*a.*) *Positive knowledge.*

(*b.*) *Skill in teaching.*

(*c.*) *Power in handling and ruling boys?*

11. I find them greatly deficient in system, order, and general school management.

11. Rarely in (*a.*)

Very often in (*b*), hence the necessity for training upper and middle class schoolmasters. Trained masters rarely suit in this respect. Sometimes in (*c,*) particularly foreign language masters.

11. [Most of those who answer this question say that the deficiency is more notable in skill than in knowledge.]

11. My assistant teachers in English have but little power in "handling and ruling boys." I have contrived to obviate this difficulty, by having them in a certain sense as *probationers,* expecting them to share but little general responsibility until they have *acquired* influence by *consistency.* Generally speaking I have had to notice a want of breadth in their views and sympathies, but this must necessarily be the case when they have been unaccustomed to use discretionary powers, and when they have been under the influence of one "clergyman," who has constituted "society" to them.

Question 12. *If the deficiency is frequent, can you suggest any remedy for it?*

12. I would encourage English teachers, passing some time abroad, to acquire a thorough conversational knowledge of the languages, as Englishmen are as a rule better able to teach English boys modern languages than foreigners.

12. A chair of the science and art of education in each university, and classes for practice in each university town.

12. Government and the universities must in some practical and unmistakeable way recognize the fact that teaching is a craft that requires very considerable skill and experience, and especially the teaching of young boys. Could there be a chair for *Pädagogik?*

12. I have already under questions 8 and 10 suggested the only remedy—viz. training all masters for their work, as elementary ones are trained after a course of general education at the university or elsewhere. All schoolmasters should spend 12 or 6 months in training colleges, adapted to the wants of upper and middle class education.

12. Yes, systematic training in the theory and practice of teaching, and school management.

12. In our society (Society of Friends) we possess an excellent institution for masters to pursue their studies until they matriculate at the London University, or in most cases get their first B.A. The only *test* for admission, the candidate to be in profession with "Friends," and make a declaration to the effect that he intends to follow a teacher's calling. Out of a three years course generally one-half of the time is allowed from his apprenticeship, the other out of the time when he might otherwise be earning a salary. The "Flounders Institute," is a private charity capable of boarding and educating *fourteen.* The supply of teachers amongst "Friends" is, notwithstanding this provision, very limited, the institution rarely being quite full. The masters are often invaluable not only on account of their literary proficiency, but on account of their good moral influence and their knowledge of schoolboy life.

IV.

Question 13. *Do you find any, and if so, what difficulties arising from differences among your scholars—*

(*a.*) *Of social rank.*

(*b.*) *Of religious belief?*

13. (*a.*) The *richer* class among the community in which my school is situated have very strong prejudices against their sons being associated with the sons of the smaller tradesmen and operatives, and so do not send them to me.

(*b.*) I have no difficulties whatever on this subject. Boys of every denomination except that of Unitarian attend the grammar-school, and beyond a mere taunt used in a moment of exasperation, I know of nothing more serious. Such a complaint may be made to me *once* in a half-year. Roman Catholics, Wesleyans, and Independants, number *one half* of the pupils, and this proportion has prevailed during the 20 years I have ruled here.

13. None.

13. (*b.*) I have all sorts: Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Roman Catholics, Greek Christians, Jews, and Parsees, and have never had any difficulty in the matter.*

13. If the head master steadily sets his face against all snobbishness, and is unsparing in his abuse of any person who wishes to introduce it, he need not fear either.

13. (*a.*) I know of none.

(*b.*) The difficulty of imparting religious knowledge to those who would wish to receive it, because of the presence of those who would not wish to do so. If left to myself I should surmount this difficulty by giving religious instruction only to those whose parents wished it. These would form a vast majority, and putting the rest at the time to some similar subject under different masters, *e.g.*, I would substitute for Scripture History, some modern (say French) history. To my mind the difficulty consists only in idea and prejudice, not in fact.†

13. (*a.*) None. Here in ——,‡ one man is apt to think himself as good as another; pride of family has not much scope. All our leading merchants and bankers, &c., have no grandfathers. I have had no quarrels or jealousies on differences of social rank in my school.

13. No difficulties arising from differences in *social rank* and *none* from differences in *religious belief.*

V.

Question 14. *What is your opinion of the value of the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations, having regard to the alleged dangers—*

(*a.*) *Of neglecting the rest of the school for the sake of the best boys.*

(*b.*) *Of disordering the general system of the school by forming classes expressly with a view to these examinations.*

(*c.*) *Of putting too severe a strain, physical or mental, upon the boys who become candidates?*

14. As far as my experience has extended, I believe that these examinations act beneficially on *bad* schools by securing a low maximum of instruction where very little was given before. They act detrimentally on *good* schools, as the principal is in danger of remaining satisfied if his boys can pass this really superficial examination. The instruction given to the best boys is apt to be limited to the requirements of the University Examiners. This limits the course of study and fetters the action of really good teachers.§

14. Some risk of this kind seems to belong to any school system which admits university preparation, scholarships, exhibitions, honours in matriculation, local examinations, &c. It is presumed, however, that most of the work will be

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* This answer is by a clergyman of the Church of England, master of a large boarding school.
† This answer is by another clergyman.
‡ A large manufacturing town.
§ This answer is given by one of the ablest and most successful private schoolmasters in Lancashire.

met by whole classes, the most difficult by "extra classes." It is certain that the preparation required for some who are going up gives a general lift to the work of all.

14. (*b.*) I could not attempt to prepare scholars for the examinations without so disordering the general system of my school. The strain is probably not too severe upon the successful ones, but upon the unsuccessful ones, who have ambition but not power, and whom strain and defeat may crush.

14. There need be no danger from any of them. There are at the same time several valid objections to the manner in which both of these examinations are conducted. And there is also the broad objection, which I think can not be answered, that it would be much better to examine the whole school or to demand that the whole school should at one time or another pass one of these examinations.

14. (*b.*) There is no necessity to form separate classes for these examinations. All our boys in the upper classes are being prepared together for them, whether they become candidates or not The only disarrangement that takes place is this: For three or four weeks before the examination candidates are allowed to omit the study of subjects which they do not intend to take up.

(*c.*) The strain upon a boy who aims at taking high honours is too severe; this arises from the multiplicity of subjects which he must take up; it may be obviated by the universities refusing to examine boys in so many subjects as they now do.

14. No danger that may be not easily avoided by a little management, and as the subjects of the examinations embrace the fundamentals of all education, no harm can arise from this (*a*), only so far as the master is blameable in neglecting to make the necessary alteration in the classes. I am not aware that any classes were unattended to.

14. The alleged dangers I have found to be real. I send boys to the examinations not from any belief in their intrinsic value, inasmuch as our own examinations are much more searching, but because the public has chosen not unnaturally to accept the *university examinations* in some measure as a *test*. From the success of the boys who have passed from this school I am led to conclude that a very questionable proficiency has secured an acknowledgment of *very questionable value*.

14. We have not introduced the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations. Our pupils do not remain with us a sufficient length of time to be able to compass all their requirements. Some of our boys would pass in the ordinary subjects, mathematics, history, grammar, &c. But had we sufficient time allowed for their preparation we should certainly pause before taking such a step, because in order to the accomplishment of the proposed object a very considerable amount of time and attention must be given to the privileged few, and of course withdrawn in the same proportion from the main body of the pupils. This would evidently inflict a certain injustice on the many for what, considered in all its bearings, may be looked upon as a doubtful good. The same teaching power continuously brought to bear on the whole school would, we think, better conserve the interests of the teacher, and, on the whole, be a clear gain to society. If what we have stated be correct, and we can furnish facts in corroboration, then a disarrangement of the ordinary school work must necessarily follow. We take it for granted that no additional teaching aid is employed, as this would entail increased expense. The subjects indicated in these examinations take a wider range than is or can, all the circumstances considered, be taken in schools of our class. A special provision then must be made in the formation of classes for the subjects lying outside the ordinary school curriculum. As a rule, we suppose the cleverest pupils are selected for these examinations. If sufficient time be allowed, say from 12 to 16, we should think no very great strain, either mental or physical, need be put upon the boys.*

* This answer is given by the master of one of the cheaper commercial boarding schools.

VI.

Question 15. *Should you expect good results from any of the following expedients, and if not, why not?*

(*a.*) *The establishment of a central Government Board to superintend the education of the country.*

(*b.*) *The appointment of public examiners whom any private schoolmaster might invite to examine his scholars.*

(*c.*) *The establishment of training colleges of a higher grade than those controlled by the Privy Council.*

(*d.*) *The institution of a body empowered to grant certificates of fitness to teachers.*

(*e.*) *The establishment at the Universities of professorships of the art of teaching (the German Pädagogik), whose lectures should be attended by persons aiming at masterships in the more important schools.*

(*f.*) *The registration of schools or schoolmasters.*

15. (*a.*) Yes, if you omit the word *Government*.

(*b.*) Yes, if you substitute *must* for *might*, the appointments would otherwise be sinecures.

(*c.*) Yes, with normal schools attached to them.

(*d.*) Yes.

(*e.*) Yes, if a normal school were attached to the chair just as a hospital forms a necessary addition to the chairs of surgery and medicine in a medical college.

(*f.*) Yes.

15. (*d.*) Yes, the scholastic profession ought to be as well protected as the two branches of the legal profession and as the medical profession is *now*.

15. (*b.*) (*c.*) (*d.*) and (*e.*) all excellent.*

15. (*e.*) Yes; but the professorships should be established at affiliated colleges in the large towns so that teachers could attend without so much loss of time or money as would be involved by going to the universities.

15. (*a.*) I see no objection to the establishment of such a board, provided that its superintendence be limited to that class of schools commonly designated *public schools;* but I am decidedly of the opinion that any scheme that would interfere with the free action of private teachers would be mischievous.

Question 16. *If the expedient marked* (*b*) *were carried out, by whom should the examiners be chosen—*

(*a.*) *By the Educational Committee of the Privy Council.*

(*b.*) *By a separate Government Board.*

(*c.*) *By the Universities?*

16. By a central board standing in the same relation to the scholastic profession as the Medical central board does to the medical profession.

16. (*a.*) No, the elementary schools are enough for one board.

(*b.*) Yes, for the subjoined reason:

Not till the older universities are unsectarianised, as I understand the Dissenters object to the universities on religious grounds, otherwise I should prefer the universities acting all in concert, and surely if all the British home universities could agree together to supply a board of examiners, such a board would not be otherwise than generally acceptable to all sects.

16. (*a.*) Yes, I say this because I think they would not insist as the universities probably would on an examination as to religious knowledge. Perhaps my meaning will be better understood if I say that examiners appointed by the committee would no doubt be expected to be free from any denominational bias.

16. In objecting to 15 (*b.*), I only intended to object to the public examiner being called in officially to inspect private schools. The existence of a class of

* Several other answers to the same effect.

public examiners to examine *all endowed schools* and report thereon I hold to be most essential, I would have them appointed by the central government board referred to in 15 (*a*), and I am certain that both the parents and the general public will hail the establishment of such a staff as the greatest possible boon.

16. (*a.*) No.
(*b.*) Yes.
(*c.*) Yes.

16. I once thought this should be left to the universities, but I doubt now whether they would appoint the right kind of examiners. Residents would be appointed, and they, from want of experience of the right kind, would not make good examiners. A Government board would probably get the best men from every quarter. Against a Government board may be urged (1) the evils of centralisation; (2) the risk of "red tapism" predominating; (3) the danger of political influences intruding. On the whole, however, I should prefer a Government board. I doubt whether the universities have sufficient general influence to make the scheme satisfactory.*

16. By the universities assisted by others chosen in a particular district. These latter to be nominated or chosen by the registered masters in such district. Thus, suppose Manchester were made the centre of a district, I should suggest that a certain number, say three gentlemen scholars, and well acquainted with the educational wants of such district, should confer with the university authorities, and with them share the right of appointing examiners. The main thing, however, is a supply of well trained masters; many of the results now desiderated would arise if this could be done, and a healthy competition would remedy many of the evils we now deplore.

The status of the master must be raised, if possible, and his position in society recognised; he is now a nobody, a social pariah, his profession or business the "Botany Bay"—or used to be—of imbeciles *in all trades and professions;* for if unsuccessful in these yet he is deemed good enough to teach a school, and often does it, and no surprise is shown if he succeed.†

Question 17. *If objections were made to this scheme, would they come—*
(*a.*) *From parents.*
(*b.*) *From the general public?*

17. I cannot think that either would object.

17. No objection would come from parents that insured better teaching, better government, and better results in private schools.

17. (*a.*) No.
(*b.*) Some of the general public would object to any conceivable scheme that could be devised. Objections, however, would not be numerous, nor I think important.

Question 18. *Is there any other fact or any view of your own which you can state for the information of the Commission?*

18. There is a tendency at the present time to subject school boys to too great a strain of the brain. Their rapid mental development is aimed at to the detriment of their physical powers. I am inclined to think that the hasty acquirement of certain branches of knowledge is attempted rather than to put the boys through a steady course of mental training. Day boys have too much work to do in the evenings. After having been six hours in school they have again to work hard in the evening at a time when everyone else is resting from the labours of the day.

The evils arising from this system may not be as manifest now, but I fear they will make themselves felt when these boys shall have become men. They might be counteracted in some degree by making gymnastics, drilling, &c. an

* This answer is given by the head master of one of the largest schools in the county, a man of much experience.
† This answer is made by a private schoolmaster.

essential part of every day's routine. Every boy should be made to go through st least one hour's systematic physical training every day, or if boys must work in the evenings, I see no objection to their having the afternoon free for exercise or play.

18. The adoption of a decimal system of weights, &c. and of a proper phonetic method of spelling would remove the *two great* obstacles to the elementary education of the *masses*. I say *unhesitatingly* that the adoption of proper decimal and phonetic systems would *do more* to advance the education of the *millions* than the *annual* grant of 500,000*l*. for the same purpose.

18. I desire very strongly to see the smaller endowments utilized by their being absorbed and massed into convenient centres so as to form large day schools and boarding schools for the lower middle classes, and the less wealthy of the upper middle classes (both for boys and girls), at which the maximum charge should be as low as is found compatible with efficiency, and which should have their endowments capitalized so as to provide suitable buildings and to offer for competition scholarships (*i.e.*, reduction or remission of charges for board and tuition), tenable at school, and exhibitions tenable in any calling after leaving school. By forming sets of three schools in connexion, (*a*) a school for boys not exceeding 14, all taught together [see II. 5 (*a*)]: (*b*) for boys not intended for an university; and (*c*) a high or classical school, and something similar for girls, we should have a graduated system of primary and secondary education which could enable ability to force its way upwards without insuperable difficulties, and induce parents not within walking distance of a good school to make a sacrifice to obtain for their children a good education. Unless such parents can be forced as in many countries to educate their children well, it is the interest of the public at least to hold out every facility.

18. I am in favour of home education where the day school is good and the parents able and willing to do their duty to their children. Boarding schools are a poor substitute for the father's counsels and the mother's love, and their united influence. Yet when homes are neglected and children allowed to run wild and form evil companionships, they are good as preventives and a partial substitute.

18. I should be very sorry to see the system of centralization in the matter of education introduced into England. In my opinion it would tend to reduce the whole race of schoolmasters to the dead level of mediocrity and convert them into educational machines. It would fatally interfere with the free action of men, and thus be destructive of anything like originality, or of that force of character by which the mind of the master is impressed upon his pupils. In short, for my own part, I think it preferable to be the servant of the public than of the public's servants.

18. Considerable experience has convinced the undersigned that every school in the kingdom is under-officered; that therefore the *business* organization of all schools is defective, and that the results on the whole are disappointing. There should be in every school sufficient power to lay hold of each individual boy and to make him work.

18. Much might be added on the relation existing between parents of pupils and the master. One general remark I may be permitted to make touching my own case: parents express their wish to me in the proportion of ten to one that their children should not be pushed.

18. You ask, in question 10, from what class middle-class teachers are taken; the lower middle class you may infer from the appended brief sketch of my own life.*

I was educated at a common cheap boarding school in the West Riding of Yorkshire till 15 years of age, having commenced at 10, the greater part of which time I was a day scholar. My father, a small woollen manufacturer, did not wish to make me a tradesman, believing that business was not worth following; becoming unsettled, I was sent to B—— to Revd. ——— to be trained in his day parochial schools, numbering about 350 boys and 250

* This answer is given by the master of a private day school in a manufacturing town, one of the most energetic and original men whom I met with.

girls. This school was considered a good one. The master leaving after I had been there nine months, I conducted the school myself for three months. My father failed in business, and not being old enough for a mastership I returned to the school where I was educated (or should have been, for when I left I could not parse a line of English, or even spell well), at a salary of 5*l.* per annum, and remaining here 12 months I got afterwards a situation in a large boarding school at G———, in Durham, by sending the principal a fine specimen of my plain and ornamental penmanship, with an unlimited supply of flourishing, swans, angels, pens, fish, &c., &c., ad libitum. The only idea I had then of good *scholarship* was the power of handling the pen, which I practised industriously, and became rather clever at it. My salary at G——— was 20*l.* per annum with board and washing, and rose to 35*l.* during the last year. I taught drawing to a class of 30 boys, and was generally trusted by the principal and made "major domo" *in his absence, or during sickness.* I remained in this situation four years, and during the interval had studied hard at Latin and Greek, and mathematics, with the intention of entering at Dublin, and in order that I might have more time for study I engaged as assistant-master at a grammar school at 50*l.* per annum, which was less than I had been receiving. I remained here 2½ years, but did not study much, and instead of proceeding to Dublin I engaged to marry a young woman, who was foolish enough to have me, and I accordingly gave notice to leave the grammar school, and resolved to commence on my own account, having very limited funds, though I always managed to save something every year besides buying books, and the surplus I put into the savings bank, which was managed by a great rogue, who robbed poor depositors to the extent of 60,000*l.*

I commenced school in a double cottage, one room of which I fitted up with desks of my *own making*, and which are good ones yet, and had 15 scholars at one guinea per quarter. At end of first half year I made more desks, and fitted up a larger room, and had 29 scholars, and then having saved a little money, and wife having brought me a fortune of 30*l.*, I was enabled to build myself a school and rent a playground. My school has always been full, and after raising the terms to two guineas seniors, 30*s.* junior pupils, it still remains full. I am conscious of many failings, and daily lament a defective education. This short sketch will give the idea how schoolmasters are made, or, I should say, as Topsy did, "growed." My case is that of hundreds; some fail entirely, and others, having friends, get a little capital, and open a boarding school, and if well supported by a managing, tidy, industrious wife, make fortunes and retire. Trusting that the patience of the Commissioners will not be exhausted, the writer hopes that some means may be devised of raising the status of teachers, *who may be induced to select* teaching as a profession, and not follow it because nothing else "turns up."

Answers to Questions relating to the Education of Girls.

I.

Question 1. *What do you believe to be the proper limit, in point of size, of—*
(*a.*) *A school;*
(*b.*) *A class taught by one teacher?*

Question 1. In most cases I should prefer a large school to a small one, the moral atmosphere of small schools being often rather unwholesome. I should approve of a school numbering from 300 to 400 girls.

A class to be taught by one teacher might consist of 20 girls.

The larger schools have the advantage of permitting—

(*a.*) Economy of teaching power. The same machinery and appliances becoming so much more effective.

(*b.*) Possible better classification of pupils offering the advantages, to younger pupils very great, of social study.

(*c.*) The opportunity afforded within the school for the growth and exercise of a generous emulation.

(*d.*) Government by a healthy public opinion, rather than by the coercion of a personal will.

(*e.*) The greater variety and freer play of moral and intellectual influences; but the mere size of a school does not necessarily confer these advantages, and English prejudice seems to be strongly in favour of the private school system for girls.

1. (*a.*) I think *large* schools with from 100 to 200 pupils are infinitely preferable to small ones. There is better discipline, better moral training, and more emulation.

(*b.*) About 25.

Not more than 50 or less than 20 girls is, I think, the right number for a school.*

An *able* teacher usually likes a rather large class of from 12 to 20 girls.

Question 2. *It is easy to procure good governesses?*

(*a.*) *English;*

(*b.*) *Foreign.*

2. No.†

(*a.*) Most so.

(*b.*) Least so.

2. By no means either English or foreign. German are, perhaps, the most painstaking, but they are often very abrupt.

2. (*a.*) Not easy.

(*b.*) Very difficult.

2. By no means, and there it is chiefly that I anticipate great results from the examination of girls.

(*b.*) Foreign governesses are perhaps easier to meet with, save for their reluctance to leave their country. Their moral tone is not to be depended upon.

2. When wise women are plentiful good governesses will be also.

2. (*b.*) Accomplished foreigners are not very difficult to find, and some Belgian and German ladies are also very well read.

2. Certainly not.

2. (*a.*) As a general rule they are more easily procured than foreign. Only the very highest class of foreign governesses can really educate, but they are often very superior.

2. Not impossible.

More English than foreign who are desirable.

2. It is very easy to procure incompetent ones, and it ought not to be.

2. I have had but little experience in procuring governesses. Several persons who are in the habit of engaging them have told me that among scores of written applications not half were correct in orthography or grammar.

2. Certainly not; it is, however, easier, I believe, to procure well qualified teachers from Germany than to meet with them in England. As far as my own observation goes the German governesses are both better instructed and more earnest than those of our own country in promoting the improvement of their pupils, though they are not very successful generally in keeping order amongst them.

Question 3. *If deficient, in which of the three following points does their deficiency chiefly lie—*

(*a.*) *Positive knowledge;*

(*b.*) *Skill in teaching;*

(*c.*) *The power of ruling and guiding their pupils?*

3. In all three; indeed deficiency in one respect involves failure in all three.

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* Several other answers to the same general effect.

† A great many other answers to the same effect.

3. Considered deficient in all three points, which may be in part referred to their employers, who overvalue showy acquirements, and the young women themselves are naturally unwilling to devote time to the cultivation of knowledge which they do not find marketable.

3. In English governesses skill in imparting knowledge is deficient.
In foreigners the power to rule is nearly always deficient, and positive knowledge very frequently also.

3. Failures on these points chiefly arise from ladies becoming teachers without any love for their vocation or not being educated for that purpose.
(*c.*) Especially deficient in foreigners.

3. Many who *wish* to teach are deficient in (*a.*); among those actually engaged in teaching the want is mostly in (*b.*) and (*c.*); these two are usually either both present or both absent.

3. (*a.*) (*b.*) (*c.*) In all these points, but chiefly in the two latter.*

3. (*a.*) Not in positive knowledge of bare facts but in such a power of arranging facts as to arrive at broad views.
(*b.*) Their "skill in teaching" is deficient inasmuch as it merely overloads the mind with unconnected facts and does not so develope the reasoning faculties as to give the pupil a genuine spirit of inquiry and power of close research.

Question 4. *What are the respective advantages of men and women as teachers?*

4. Men are often more determined, women more persuasive, men frequently more earnest, women more patient, men more profound, women more progressive.

Men generally inspire awe, women generally have more patience.

Perhaps men are more resolute. Beyond a certain point they teach arithmetic better. Women are more patient in matters of detail and have more sympathy with dulness and weakness. Contact with the opposite sex corrects deficiencies and redundancies in the mental constitution of each.

Women are more patient and more *thorough*, men more forcible teachers.

Masters probably are more feared by girls; but ladies are more minute and patient, if in other respects good teachers.

For young or dull pupils women are the best, being more patient and gentle; but with clever girls who have been well grounded, masters have more influence and generally succeed in making them exercise their judgment and reasoning powers.

Women enter more into detail, and have a clearer perception of the difficulties of learners and of the necessity of constant reiteration of instruction.

Men command the attention, but women are more patient and persevering where they have to contend with incapacity or carelessness.

Women more readily understand the true capability of their pupil, and bring their teaching down to that level, while men address them as entirely ignorant, or presuppose capabilities according to age.

Women better for the general elementary teaching; men for the advanced stage of literature and composition. This last is a very important point I consider.

As a class men are perhaps better qualified, because they do not take up teaching as their only resource, which women unfortunately for themselves and others too frequently do, but good teachers of either sex may I think be equally efficient.

Men's knowledge being more thorough their teaching is less superficial, but

* A great many other answers are to the same effect.

they are not always strict enough in requiring accuracy from young ladies. French masters succeed best in this.

Men have more method and vigour, women more perception of individual character, and power of adapting themselves to each.

Men teach more thoroughly, women make subjects more pleasing, but are apt to be superficial.

Men naturally have most command over girls, and frequently have more thorough knowledge of the subjects they are chiefly employed to teach. Female teachers seem to possess more moral influence over their pupils, because they sympathise most closely with them.

Girls stand more in awe of men, boys have as they advance more deference for women. In quickness of sympathy with pupils, discrimination of character, and ready adaptation to it, a woman has great advantages over a man.

Men are more stimulating; but although often valuable for a time, their teaching sometimes calls out love of approbation too strongly in girls.

Women are more sympathetic, perceive more quickly the difficulties of the pupil, and are more patient to remove them. As a rule they are less sparing of their labour than men, but they are at a great disadvantage as compared with men, from their lack of thorough culture, shown by their want of clearness, accuracy, and scientific method as teachers.

Women are more tender, sympathetic, and patient, and are therefore most usefully employed in the earlier stage. Girls from 14 years of age or thereabouts are more influenced by men. I think the latter stages of a girl's education are best conducted by men.

Men usually give clear broad outlines of things, women enter more into the minute details.

Women are generally more conscientious as to time and attention.

I think that men are the best teachers for girls, they take hold of their whole minds and control them more easily than women.

Men's teaching is more exact, comprehensive, and philosophical than that of women; but they leave their pupils to work alone. Women are more patient and painstaking, and the best fitted for elementary teaching.

As we have no colleges for women it is presumed that a male teacher may possess more profound knowledge of a given subject; hence that his teaching may be more profound. In the varied lessons of general education, however, I think a woman possessing a real gift of teaching has usually more sympathy with her pupils, and may educate more though she instructs less.

Men are the best; they have more method and clearness in their teaching (at present), and have more influence.

As teachers I think that women are usually more patient and consequently more thorough going than men. Intelligent pupils who are able and willing to work out their difficulties alone will probably progress more rapidly under the tuition of a master than they would do under that of a mistress; but I am sure that in ordinary cases a master's lessons to a class of girls will be of comparatively little value unless they are supplemented by the explanations and assistance of a competent female instructor. I have seen most satisfactory results arise from a combination of male and female instructors to the same class, but have little faith in the advantage of the former unless aided in the mode I have mentioned.

Question 5. *What are the respective advantages of boarding and day schools, having regard to—*

(*a.*) *Mental culture;*
(*b.*) *The formation of moral character;*
(*c.*) *Refinement of manners and feeling?*

5. (*a.*) In boarding schools uniformity of instruction and discipline.
(*b.*) In day schools the maintenance of home ties.
(*c.*) Perhaps in a well conducted boarding school.

(*a.*) Boarding schools have the advantage as they secure regular attendance.
(*b.*) Where many girls live together the moral character is rarely good, truth and honour being too often disregarded. At a day school constant home influence helps to counteract these evils.
(*c.*) So far as this *can* be taught it must be at home, ordinary boarding schools being the worst places for such training. Except in the mere externals of refinement, these points cannot be attended to in a day school.

The character is more tried, its resources brought into fuller play, and it may therefore gain more strength in boarding than in day schools. The mental culture may be more complete because more continuous. A day school has the great advantage of being compatible with an abode in a happy home, where the formation of the moral character may be carefully watched, and the manners and feelings imbued with refinement.

Given a good well-organized day school, and a well arranged home life, in which private study is possible, and perhaps a little aided, the day school is, I consider, greatly superior to the boarding school in all these points, with the exception of a conventionality rather than a refinement of manners which is attainable at a boarding school, but seldom at a day school.

The answer to this must depend so much on circumstances that it is difficult to give it positively. It is more difficult to acquire steady habits of work when the lessons are prepared at home, and the regularity of boarding school hours is lost. But those who consider freedom and happiness necessary to the formation of moral character will think these losses more than compensated by the advantages of a wise and happy home life. Girls' schools, from the great restraint and continual watchfulness believed to be necessary in them, differ from boys' schools in giving no experience of the world, but those which I have known have not deserved the general accusation of destroying refinement of manners and feeling.

Boarding schools have many disadvantages, especially where the number of boarders is large. The more nearly the arrangements in a boarding school can resemble those of a family the better. From 6 to 10 or 12 is, in my opinion, a sufficiently large number.

Theoretically, I am entirely in favour of home education for girls, and, as the nearest approach to it, of the day school.

Parents ought to be the real educators, the function of other teachers being chiefly the giving of special technical instruction.

I hold the artificial separate grouping of young people to be a great mistake, and one fruitful of evil consequences. The special weaknesses of their age and sex are aggravated and intensified instead of being met by corrective influences.

The ideal family group affords the best opportunities at once for successful culture (which I distinguish from technical book instruction), for the formation of moral character, and for the refinement of manners and feeling. But the ideal family group is rarely to be met with; the father is engrossed by professional or business cares, the mother by the nursery or society, and both often so wholly indifferent to the right training of their children, or so incompetent for it, that one is driven back to the boarding school as the lesser of two great evils, and compelled to cast about for a means of reducing its inherent defects to a minimum.

In boarding schools the regular hours and thorough discipline give fair opportunities for mental work, while the desire of carrying home a good report creates a strong impulse to it. In day schools irregular attendance and home distractions often weaken or destroy this feeling. The passing of leisure time in free converse with others of undeveloped character is sometimes hurtful to the moral tone.

But the selfishness and indifference caused by home indulgence is corrected by the sudden isolation of school life, while the manners are improved by mixing with numbers and by submission to undisputed authority. I think the very best rather than the very worst of women are produced at boarding schools.

II.

Question 6. *Is there such a difference between the minds of boys and of girls as to demand a different system of mental training for each?*

6. I do not consider there is any difference between the minds of boys and girls originally. What we see arises from the difference of teaching, training, pursuits, and circumstances. They are quite equal to the same mental training.

Do not find that the little boys under my care have as much perseverance as the girls, and they seem to require more minute explanations, &c.

Not so much in mind as in the position of life, for which they must be respectively prepared. Men for enterprise and invention, women for intelligent devotion to home duties. The primary, moral, and intellectual education of boys and girls should be the same.

Not till the age of 12 or 14, but subsequently yes.

Perhaps boys possess more strength of mind, girls greater quickness of perception and refinement, and in persevering application and talent to acquire all branches of education they certainly do not evidence inferiority. Might it not be a mutual advantage if mixed classes could be formed from the ages of 8 or 10 to 13 or 14, conducted by *truly good* and *well* qualified masters and governesses? If mental strength be greater on the one side it might be advantageously imparted, whilst the quickness, quiet perseverance, and refinement of the girls would exert such an influence as might at no distant period greatly benefit both families and general society.

I do not think girls are physically capable of so much sustained mental effort as boys. They require, therefore more variety in their work.

Their intellectual tastes often waken earlier, and they require less stimulus than boys, being generally more eager for knowledge. The difficulty is in making them work thoroughly and go to the bottom of things. Their quickness of perception leads them to the conclusion before they have followed the steps of the argument. This is an every day observation, but a true one, as it is not an established fact that women have no character; their tastes are as various as boys'.

Not more so than between various boys as compared with each other, or various girls similarly compared.

Not a different system, but a different administration, girls as a rule possessing quicker apprehension, and boys longer power of endurance.

There is no such difference; this is taken from a forty years' experience of one who has taught both sexes in great numbers, and in almost all the branches of education, languages, science, history, geography, philosophy, &c.*

Certainly not till about the age of 14.

I think *not*, but if girls were to pursue some of the studies generally taken up by boys more especially, they would have to curtail the time now given to accomplishments, and the generality of parents would be averse to this.

Having had considerable experience in teaching both boys and girls, I am decidedly of opinion that very little difference, if any, is required. If girls were sent to school as constantly as boys, only expected to study the same elementary branches in early youth, and were accustomed to anything approaching the same amount of out-door exercise, I believe the training mentally might proceed on the same basis.

I think not; essentially different as they are and as they were intended to be I believe that systematic exactness in mental training is equally beneficial to them.

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* Most of the other answers are to this effect.

Question 7. *What subjects of study interest girls most?*

7. Girls generally cling to the imaginative; history, geography, biography, poetry, are often favourite studies.

They are almost uniformly fond of geography and history, and can be easily interested in any subject connected with them.*

Girls at first resist whatever requires close observation, comparison, and well exercised memory; I find that ultimately I can interest my pupils in those subjects for which I have a strong passion or bias.

History and mythology, astronomy, geography, natural history, drawing, music.

Geography and history have generally interested our pupils the most. But this probably depends to a great extent upon the teachers' own tastes.

Those which require the least mental application, such as geography.

Anything that appeals to the feelings, such as heroic poetry; or anything practically *useful*, such as book-keeping.

History, biography, geography, mythology, and poetry interest all with very few exceptions. Elementary books on astronomy, natural science and natural history have special attractions for a lesser number; grammar and derivation engage the attention of comparatively few.

As it is not an established fact that "women have no character," their tastes are as various as boys.

Geography, civil history, natural history in early youth, to which is afterwards added languages.

So far as my experience goes, the modern languages and natural science.

Usually subjects connected with people, as biography, poetry, religious metaphysics.

Arithmetic, the elements of mathematics, and natural science and history. (When there is great natural taste and talent for music, the powers of the mind in other directions are usually weak).

Question 8. *Is there any subject* (e.g., *arithmetic*) *at which they are particularly inapt?*

8. Inaptness for any subject I conceive to arise from the first teaching being defective.

I do not think that there is if properly taught.†

I think girls are rarely as quick as boys at arithmetic.

More inapt at arithmetic than other studies, but perhaps the fault may lie in the want of interest in the teacher.

Not more so than boys; with equal advantages and equal early training, five girls out of every 10 would rival boys of the same age in arithmetic.

Not in my experience. Many *dislike* grammar, but it is a valuable mental exercise.

Yes. Arithmetic with most girls and grammar with many.

They are, generally speaking, very inapt at arithmetic, and have a corresponding dislike to it, but both inaptitude and dislike would, I think, be overcome were more time and attention bestowed on it in girls' schools.

I think that girls are particularly quick at the processes of arithmetic, though they may not see the reason of them. Composition is their weak point in all languages, including their own.

No, but because arithmetic must be perfectly taught in order to be understood. The want of good teaching is felt in this.

The majority find greatest difficulty in grammar.

* A good many other answers are to this effect.
† Many other answers to the same effect.

As a rule, they are inapt at arithmetic and mathematics. I have taught girls who have learned these branches and understood them as well as any boy could, but they were exceptions.

In the elementary parts they were equally successful, but in the higher branches of mathematics there was always a decided inferiority to boys where both had had the same opportunities.

Any special inaptitude of girls for arithmetic is a matter of supposition, and not at all warranted by the facts of the case. Arithmetic has been shamefully ill-taught in girls' schools, but when properly taught becomes usually a favourite subject. The same holds good of grammar and analysis.

Certainly *not*. It has been often remarked that girls from the commercial classes, especially Jewesses, are particularly quick in arithmetic, and surpass boys.

Among 150 girls I remember only one who could not master elementary arithmetic.

I think not. In arithmetic many display particular aptness. Where there is deficiency it usually proceeds from neglect of early teaching.

They have, I think, great difficulty in comprehending abstract principles of any kind, and whilst they are often very ready at arithmetical calculations, can rarely either see or even be made to wish to see the reason for the rules by which it is regulated.

Question 9. *Are girls unable* (*a*) *physically or* (*b*) *mentally to bear the strain of a protracted written examination?*

9. Girls are generally physically unfit for protracted exertion, and that must affect them mentally.

No, we think not.*

For the most part decidedly unable in both respects. The sympathy of numbers brings out the resources of each child for which reason I prefer a vivâ voce examination.

I do not find an hour or hour and half too long. The preparation for the examination should not be forgotten, it makes demands upon the nervous system of an exciteable girl. The pupils always look forward with great pleasure to the written examination here.

I do not think they are unable in either respect after proper training.

An examination of four hours a day for a week is not too much for girls of 12 or 14.

No, with proper precautions as to exercise and air.

(*a*.) Yes; (*b*.) yes. If it does not hurt them at the time the ill effects are felt afterwards.

Many are physically unfit for it from the artifical mode of their life; if in good health they could easily write for two hours or more at one time.

For some years past my pupils have been in the habit of taking a written examination in the middle of the half-year and again at the end, in the first case occupying a week, and in the second 10 or 12 days; the average time of work being from six to seven hours a day. We have never had one case of illness *however slight* as the result, and I should therefore answer decidedly in the negative did I not suppose the question to refer rather to a public than a private examination. Of course in any public competitive examination, the excitement being much greater, the continuous strain ought to be less protracted, and much will depend on a wise distribution of hours and subjects. The recent examination in Manchester was borne I believe without injury to any one, without any great fatigue by most.

They are quite capable of bearing examinations prolonged to any extent. In this school the annual examination lasts *three* weeks, two, three, or even four

* Most of the answers are to the same effect as this (which is given by a schoolmistress of great experience), but some differ, as will be seen from the answers selected.

short written examinations in a day. The average during the three weeks is two of two hours per diem.

Yes, physically; out of a hundred very few could bear it. The extent to which I have seen it tried was for three successive days, one subject morning and one afternoon; the time allotted for answers being from one to two hours; any pupil who had done her utmost being at liberty to deliver up her papers and retire. On the third day some gave up their papers half answered from sheer powerlessness to proceed.

Perfectly so. Publicity to be avoided.

As far as I have seen a written examination of four hours daily, lasting through three or four consecutive days, is as much as girls can bear, and I think there should be an interval of an hour at the end of the second hour.

When accustomed to written examinations girls are quieter in their work in a long paper, and fresher at the end than boys of the same age. After 14 their powers of endurance are less than those of boys.

Question 10. *What, if any, are the peculiar difficulties in girls' schools in maintaining discipline, truthfulness, and a good tone of feeling?*

10. The difference in the position of the parents.

Rivalry in dress and gossipping habits.

Discipline under a kind firm rule is easily maintained; truthfulness by *trustfulness* and vigilance combined. A good tone of feeling is a difficulty. Petty jealousies and strifes are frequent, and need constant watchful meditation and great tact in management; they should be noticed and reconciled, not left to smoulder.

There is not much difficulty in maintaining either of the two first when the governess is a strict disciplinarian and a woman of high principles; but there is considerable difficulty in maintaining the last when the girls are earnestly competing for prizes.

The peculiar difficulty in maintaining discipline, truthfulness, and a good tone of feeling among giris, is their love of ease and their determination to possess it. For this purpose they often have recourse to scheming and falsehood.

Esprit de corps is much more difficult to obtain in a school of girls than boys. It is proportionately difficult to maintain a good tone of feeling. The inferiority of girls' discipline, &c., may be owing to the want of vigorous association in play, and in their being generally more isolated or associated in smaller sets than boys.

Disposition to chatter and petty jealousies are the only difficulties I find.

There are no peculiar difficulties; in many cases they are far superior to boys in truthfulness, and especially in good feeling.*

As a system of discipline I have known the following plan work extremely well. A monthly examination into the conduct and progress of every girl being carefully made, the parents and friends were invited to be made acquainted with the result. The girls were excited to a certain degree of emulation and activity by the interest shown in their work. Serious faults were reproved in presence of all the teachers by admonitions suited to the offence, and so well did this system act on the hearts and on the fears of the girls that in a school numbering from 80 to 90 it was rarely that more than four or five had to be thus corrected.

One great difficulty in the maintenance of discipline is the disposition on the part of female teachers generally to show favouritism towards their pupils, and this difficulty arises from the tendency in girls to allow the judgment to be biassed by their feelings and prejudices.

A very general fault in the character of girls is an overweening desire to be popular with their companions, leading not unfrequently to the sacrifice of right principle.

* This answer is given by a gentleman who has had very large experience as a teacher both of boys and of girls.

A tendency towards smallness in everything.

When a number of girls are collected together it is, I think, difficult to maintain the necessary order and quietude without creating an atmosphere of restraint which is on many accounts very undesirable.

In a school of girls alone under 15 years of age the difficulties in the way of moral training are almost insuperable. In a school of boys and girls the difficulties are comparatively trifling. Each are a check on the vices peculiar to the other.

Question 11. *Should you prefer to govern girls by rewards or by punishments, and what are the grounds of your preference?*

Girls are very easily discouraged and depressed by harshness or punishment, and the less refined become careless and hardened to them very rapidly. Emulation is an all-powerful motive of exertion in a girls' school.

By rewards. It is bad to humiliate girls except for moral faults, such as lying.

By neither. Rewards encourage jealousy, pride, discontent, petty quarrels, &c. Punishments harden; they should act from principle and be left as much as possible to their conscience.

Girls ought not to go to school till they are too old to require either, that is, till they are about 15.

By rewards principally, but also by small penalties, such as loss of marks, &c. Girls want *motives* to study, even more than boys, because too frequently their parents do not see the necessity of keeping the girls regularly at school.

A system of honours, *i.e.*, prizes and certificates, obviates this to a great extent.

By neither. Rewards are decidedly injurious, and in a well organized school with right moral training, and watchful, loving superintendence, punishments will be rarely, if ever, needed.

No regular system can be laid down, for if it is attempted to teach and to treat girls of different minds and characters exactly alike, the result will be a failure. Hypocrisy will be induced; it should be remembered that girls are more sensitive than boys; they love more easily, they *envy* more easily, therefore emulation should be sparingly employed there should be *no prizes.*

I should prefer to govern *children* mainly by rewards, and elder pupils by slight and occasional punishments. I do not think that the older pupils should need rewards as an incentive to exertion, as they should begin to feel that the acquisition of knowledge is *itself* a privilege, while at the same time some corrective would be needed for the habitual thoughtlessness which is such a common fault. Slight punishments are, I think, a help in training them to a sense of responsibility.

By both combined. If by one it must be by punishments, for girls are more apt than boys to be vain or spiteful to others by rewards, and less apt to lose the benefit of punishment through bravado.

III.

Question 12. *What do you consider the value* as a means of mental training *for girls of the following subjects—*

(*a.*) *Latin.*
(*b.*) *Mathematics.*
(*c.*) *French or German* grammar (i.e., *does it do for them what Latin is alleged to do for boys?*)
(*d.*) *History.*
(*e.*) *Natural science* (i.e., *chemistry, natural philosophy, &c.*);
(*f.*) *Natural history* (i.e., *botany, geology, &c.*);
(*g.*) *The grammar of music and harmony?*

12. (*c.*) Does not take the place of Latin grammar. There is more of mental training in the study of German than French.

12. In my opinion German grammar will do for girls all that Latin is said to do for boys.

12. (*c.*) German to be preferred. Neither will do so well as Latin.*

(*g.*) This, perhaps, the best substitute for mathematics, if taught on a simple, intelligible system.

12. As French or German grammar well taught is said to do as much for boys as Latin, it may do the same for girls, but it must be taught in a very different way from that generally practised, *e.g.*, Syntax must be learnt, and the universal elements of grammar explained.

12. (*a.*) Most desirable for girls.

(*b.*) Even more so; one of these should be taught in all the higher schools, and if possible both.

12. (*c.*) No, it does not.

12. (*c.*) It does not except in rare cases under the instruction of certain teachers.

12. (*c.*) French effects the same in *kind*, not in degree; as it is simpler than Latin. German, if equally carefully taught, would be nearly on a par with Latin.

(*g.*) Most desirable, if the pupil has musical ability, and desires to attain proficiency. Such study would prevent noisy superficial music and a wish for display.

12. (*c.*) The close study of French syntax is very valuable mental training, more so than that of German, but less, probably, than that of Latin. Latin and mathematics should be taken up, I think, in the last two years of a school education, *i.e.*, about 15 years of age.

(*g.*) Certainly no girl should learn music unless she is at the same time taught harmony.

12. (*c.*) Decidedly not as regards French grammar, especially as it is acquired very much by *imitation* from hearing and conversing with a French teacher, not by any process of thought.

12. (*c.*) I think French or German grammar would prove to be of equal value to girls where it is thoroughly and properly taught.

12. (*c.*) The elements of natural philosophy are useful, but not generally so interesting to girls as natural history, especially zoology and botany.

12. (*c.*) Neither French nor German grammar can give what Latin gives. The latter is neither sufficiently settled nor sufficiently concise. The former is so difficult as to be of no use for mental training till there is a much more complete knowledge of the language than it is possible to give in school.

(*d.*) History is most valuable for the cultivation of high feeling and of accurate judgments on conduct; but it is *only at a later age* that its real value can be seen, when the training given by grammar has enabled the mind to investigate the truth of history, weigh conflicting testimonies, and trace events to their causes.

Question 13. *What do you conceive to be the value of the following methods and in what subjects should each be employed?*

(*a.*) *Learning by heart from a text book.*

(*b.*) *Oral lessons, not catechetical.*

(*c.*) *Committing to memory passages from good authors, English or foreign.*

(*d.*) *Examination in writing?*

13. (*d.*) Doubtless impresses the facts written upon the memory, but occupies too much time, and is bad for deportment.

(*a.*) When, as is frequently the case, learning by heart is easy to girls, this is useful as a supplement to lectures in history, natural science, &c.

(*c.*) Composition and style being a girl's weak points, this would be very useful if the passages are wisely chosen for terseness and force, not for elegance and fine writing, and if these excellencies are pointed out old English authors would be the best to choose from.

* Several other answers to the same effect.

Question 14. *Is it desirable to teach* all *girls*—
(*a.*) *Music.*
(*b.*) *Drawing?*

14. Certainly not, only where talent exists?
(*a.*) To all who have the talent. It is the least selfish accomplishment and contributes most to the enjoyment of others.

14. I should deem it desirable for all my pupils.

14. Decidedly not.*

14. May I be permitted to remark upon the character of the vocal music prevalent in the middle class. The music I am told by a professor is ephemeral and third rate. Of the poetry I can judge better, it is for the most part unmeaning and frivolous. The nation needs a class of songs in which the relationships business and feelings of daily life from childhood upwards should be healthily vitalized.

14. (*a.*) Music certainly, because the accuracy, precision, and perseverance which it requires are a very good mental discipline, also because in later years music contributes in making home cheerful and happy to all who are in it.
(*b.*) Drawing, if time allows; but drawing can be studied with perhaps greater profit at a later period. Music requires to be begun early.

14. (*a.*) (*b.*) Yes, decidedly; all *young* girls often fancy they have no taste for these things, when the fact is only that they dislike the trouble, the mechanical labour, and this very mechanical labour is so useful as a relaxation from mental effort of a different kind; moreover, a girl's hand should be cultivated as carefully as her head. If she has really a natural distaste for music and drawing, it will be time enough to leave them off at 16 or 18, and the time spent upon them will not have been wasted, it will have given her the power of appreciating art, and have cultivated her taste, always supposing that they have been well taught by first-rate masters.

14. Only the beginning of each till the natural capacity is ascertained.

14. All as a study, the exceptional few as an accomplishment. The education of the eye and the ear are of very great importance. The perception of the harmonies of proportion and sound ought to be educated in all, wholly irrespective of any higher artistic results.

14. Yes, because a talent is often latent, and the enjoyment of hearing and looking at works of art is greatly enhanced by cultivation, but in no instance would I have great proportion of time bestowed. I believe notwithstanding all that music masters may say, that one hour's good practice per day is quite sufficient for really good playing; if you want to make her a professor that is quite another thing.

14. (*a.*) No. Where there is no aptitude for music the time devoted to it is worse than wasted, being so much abstracted from studies more congenial to the pupil.
(*b.*) Yes, to a certain extent some knowledge of drawing, *i.e.*, the ability to copy natural objects educates the eye to estimate proportion and distance, and gives a better appreciation of the beautiful in nature and art.

Question 15. *If not, how many* (i.e., *what proportion of the girls in any school*) *may properly be advised to spend time on each of these subjects?*

15. Should think about half.

15. Perhaps not more than one third, if the pupils belong to the lower part of the middle class.

15. Nine girls out of every ten may be taught music advantageously; but, generally speaking, not more than five or six spend time *well* in learning drawing.

15. Only such as naturally possess some taste, the proportion varies; generally about three fourths might study music with some success, a lower average in drawing.

* A good many other answers to the same effect.

15. I do not believe that more than $\frac{1}{25}$ have a natural talent for them, but it is my opinion that in music success may be *ensured* as far as execution is concerned, by beginning sufficiently young, say four or five years, when it becomes second nature. Parents in general think nine or ten early enough, which is a great mistake with regard to all children who have not a natural aptitude for it.

15. I think $\frac{3}{4}$ in each.

15. Not more than one half generally. *See* 14.

Question 16. *How far, and by what methods, do you believe it possible to give girls—*

(*a.*) *Ease and accuracy in English composition.*
(*b.*) *A taste for literature.*
(*c.*) *Definite dogmatic instruction in religious truth?*

16. (*c.*) Do not approve of dogmatic instruction in religious truth except on fundamental doctrines.

16. To an extent limited chiefly by the capacity of the teacher.
(*a.*) By daily exercise on well selected subjects.
(*b.*) By well prepared lessons, with the scriptures only for a text-book: the greatest care must be taken to make scripture lessons interesting and not wearisome.

16. The dullest girl by constant practice may be made able to write a decent letter. Bright girls may write passable English verses and a well expressed essay. By reading aloud from our best authors, recommending good books from the library, and making the prizes standard works.

16. (*c.*) Nothing sectarian is ever introduced. We try to give each child some knowledge of the leading Bible truths, and find ourselves helped by using the Assembly's Shorter Catechism.

16. (*a.*) Girls who have had long and careful teaching generally write with correctness. The dread of criticism and ridicule will deter the timid from expressing their feelings and ideas freely in a theme or an exercise. Reading a passage from a good author and then writing it from memory is useful.
(*b.*) Their taste for reading and desire to know anything of English literature depend mainly upon the tastes and feelings of their parents and the general tone of the home circles.
(*c.*) In our school, consisting of pupils whose friends profess almost every shade of religious opinions, the religious teaching is comprised in Bible reading, committing short texts to memory, inculcating all the great Christian duties, and endeavouring to impress on the mind the facts of scripture history, especially of the New Testament.

16. (*c.*) Definite religious dogmas can be learnt by rote, but religious feeling such as can act upon the life must grow gradually from small beginnings.

16. (*c.*) It is very easy to give this, but of what advantage would it be except to increase the natural bigotry and ignorant prejudices of women? How can dogmatic religious instruction be other than sectarian?

16. (*c.*) No school teaching ought to attempt it.
But girls should be taught what others have thought and the *duty* of thinking for themselves.

16. After trying various methods with pupils at commencement of composition, I find the narration of a simple story or anecdote to be brought back in the pupils own words has been most successful.
This can be gradually changed as the mind of the pupil becomes sufficiently matured to reproduce the thoughts which have passed through it.
(*c.*) On this I can hazard no opinion, having always considered dogmatic truth unsuited to a schoolroom where children of various communions are instructed together. Christian truths in which all agree have been our rule of teaching.

16. (*b.*) A taste for literature may be cultivated by reading aloud good fiction, poetry, &c.

The poetry *learnt by heart* should be *chosen* by the pupil. If a poor choice is made, the teacher may explain why the poetry is inferior and suggest better.

(*c.*) This is a very difficult subject. It is possible for the teacher to give a great deal of religious and scriptural instruction without entering upon the points respecting which Christians are divided. When such questions were started in my own classes (mixed of children belonging to the Church and Dissenters) I always said at once, "Different opinions are held on these points, and I do not wish to give you mine." Often I mentioned the different views without deciding between them. (In this way the young are saved the great pain of having to give up after examination what has been taught them as certain, sacred truth.)

16. (*a.*) Many girls possess so much natural facility in expressing themselves on paper that they have little difficulty in writing letters, but most of them object to writing compositions on stated subjects, and fail when they attempt it. In order to exercise them in composition of a less familiar style than that of letters we have given biographical sketches of eminent men to be written from memory, or have required detailed accounts of historical events like the Trojan War; but the writing of themes is undoubtedly more useful if it does not lead to a waste of time in a vain search for ideas.

(*c.*) To give definite dogmatic religious instruction to classes composed of young people belonging to various Christian denominations appears to me impossible; disputed points should be either avoided altogether or stated in the most impartial manner. Every opportunity should, however, be taken to inform the pupils upon subjects connected with scriptural knowledge, and with this object classes for the study of Bible history and its related topics should form part of the regular routine of every school. Young people may thus be made acquainted with the meaning and significance of words and observances to which they have previously attached no clear ideas, and are familiarised with important facts of which they are frequently left in lamentable ignorance. It is astonishing that many so-called Christian parents of every denomination should take little or no care of the religious instruction of their children.

IV.

Question 17. *What difficulties, if any, in the management of girls' schools do you believe to arise from differences among the pupils—*

(*a.*) *Of social rank.*

(*b.*) *Of religious belief.*

17. I know of none.

17. (*a.*) There is no difference.

(*b.*) None in my establishment.

17. I have once or twice found them arise from social rank, never from the latter.

17. Very little in my case; the appearance taken for the reality, dress levelling all distinctions. The subject rarely mentioned and instantly suppressed.

17. The social status of our pupils has generally been nearly on a level. Though they have belonged to almost every Protestant denomination no difficulties have arisen from this source.

17. I have had as many as 280 girls under my charge at once, embracing all sects of Christians and Jewesses, and never experienced a single difficulty.

17. (*a.*) Very trifling ones. It is the parent's fault.

(*b.*) The girls talk theology in the play hours and mutually convert each other.

17. No difficulties.

(*b.*) Pupils of various denominations, including the daughters of ministers, have at different times during the last 12 years been placed under my care both as day scholars and boarders, and the harmony of the school has continued uninterrupted.

17. (*a.*) These are not greater among girls than among boys, and a good teacher who can secure the attention and love of his pupils will never experience any difficulty arising from these differences.

(*b.*) Use the Bible as a text-book: quite enough.

17. (*a.*) In a day school few such difficulties arise.

(*b.*) Few difficulties arise if certain parts of the dogmatic religious teaching be left open to the parents. In this school for instance, which is essentially Church of England, there are very many dissenters who in all cases have consented to take the religious teaching except so far as the catechism and articles are concerned.

17. Very few from differences in social rank if the teacher be judicious, or from religious belief if the primary truths of Christianity may be taught at all.

17. (*a*) and (*b*). In my own experience as a teacher I have not had to contend with difficulties of this class.*

Question 18. *How should such difficulties be met?*

18. It should be fairly understood that in a school the only status acknowledged should be moral worth and conscientious effort after excellence. Both parents and teachers should discountenance the mention of differences of religious belief among the pupils either in or out of school.

18. Should never be allowed to arise.

18. As I would knock down a man of straw.

18. There has been with us variety both in rank and religion without any peculiar difficulties: perhaps they have been prevented. The school is moderate in size; difference in rank is never recognized by the teachers, the pupils are fully employed while in class, and whatever scripture or other religious lessons are given are strictly non-sectarian.

18. May be best met by a simple open acknowledgment of them, by a uniform treatment of all, whatever their social rank, and by the inculcation of natural respect for difference in religious opinion and observance.

V.

Question 19. *Should you expect good results from any of the following measures, and if so, on what grounds—*

(*a.*) *Public periodical examinations for girls, such as the Oxford and Cambridge local examinations.*

(*b.*) *The appointment of public examiners to examine and report on any private school which should invite them to inspect it.*

(*c.*) *The establishment of training colleges for teachers.*

(*d.*) *The institution of a college, examining board, or other properly qualified body, empowered to grant certificates of fitness to teachers.*

(*e.*) *The registration of schools or of teachers?*

Public periodical examinations would tend I fear to lessen the diffidence and retiring modesty so beautiful in young girls, and would be a strong temptation to teachers to neglect the average many for the brilliant few. The other propositions seem to me to be very desirable.†

19. (*a.*) It would be a guarantee to parents desiring a good education that at such schools their children could obtain it. It would also stimulate the energies of both teachers and pupils.

(*b.*) Yes, certain conditions being previously arranged.

(*c.*) I cannot give an opinion. I would suggest that the work of tuition should be open as at present, provided teachers persevered in such a course of study as would entitle them to a certificate in a given time.

(*d.*) Desirable, provided it be not used to party purposes.

(*e.*) I do not understand the benefit arising from it.

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* Many other answers to the same effect.

† Several other answers to the same effect.

19. (*a.*) No: such a display would be too ostentatious to be good for the feminine mind.

(*b.*) The best possible result. The certain expectation of such an examination would supply a stimulus we much need. It is a measure *greatly* to be desired.

(*c.*) Yes, but many who become teachers from necessity would not be able to avail themselves of them.

(*d.*) To some extent, yes.

19. (*a.*) No; the preparation, as well as the examination, would tax too heavily the nervous power of an excitable girl. Pride would be fostered in some, emulation excited in all; a disheartening depression might be the result of failure, and it is desirable that girls should be kept in modest retirement.

(*d.*) It appears very difficult for an "examining board" to judge of the fitness of a teacher, unless witnesses of his or her actual teaching. Not only is a certain amount of knowledge requisite, but method, patience, sympathy, and firmness with gentleness are indispensable qualifications.

19. (*a.*) Girls will often work more earnestly and perseveringly for a stranger than for a familiar teacher. Working for a definite object is less monotonous than the ordinary routine of school.

The fear of not earning a certificate would be a stimulus.

(*b.*) It would be an advantage to ascertain how a private school stands when compared with others of the same class, and valuable hints might be obtained from examiners familiar with the management and working of schools.

19. (*c.*) Especially desirable for imparting *the art of teaching.*

(*d.*) This might secure many private families from the wretched incompetency of teachers, which evil, however, generally results from under payment of professional services.

19. (*b.*) Such a system I think of great use, as it causes the teachers not to relax in their endeavours to bring their pupils forward; also causes such schools to become known when the pupils progress satisfactorily.*

19. These are points earnestly desired by all efficient teachers; it would improve the social position of private governesses, as well as their remuneration, which is at present very inadequate, rendering any provision for old age or sickness impossible. It would also remove the idea, now too prevalent, that anyone, however superficially educated, can teach. Parents would be more certain of obtaining competent governesses, and the competition being decreased, more anxious to retain them.

19. Yes, for the same reasons which render such examinations desirable for boys and men.

19. (*b.*) This would doubtless be very good in itself, but may be objected to on the ground that it would be equivalent to rendering such inspection compulsory, by placing those who do not desire it at a manifest disadvantage with the public.

(*c.*) Most excellent, as supplying advantages which cannot be obtained in private schools.

(*d.*) Extremely good in itself.

19. I should certainly expect good results from the institution of public periodical examination for girls if such a measure were accompanied by a corresponding elevation of the teaching power. By such a measure girls would be furnished with a strong motive for learning, and the intelligence of the female portion of the community would be greatly increased.

As at present taught, however, but few of the school girls of England, even of those attending schools of the highest pretensions, could successfully pass such an examination; and for this, among other reasons, I think it desirable that all schools should be open to inspection, that training colleges should be established for teachers, and that a properly qualified body should be empowered to grant certificates of fitness to teachers.

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* Several other answers to the same effect.

19. (*a.*) Yes; especially in the case of those who are preparing to be governesses, it is a safe guarantee to their employers.

(*b.*) Better results may be expected from this, inasmuch as two or three girls sent from a school are no criterion of the state of the whole.

19. (*a.*) No; composition and cramming are likely to be even more injurious to girls than boys, lowering their moral tone, and increasing their mental and educational deficiency—superficial and uncertain knowledge, besides the additional danger to girls of publicity.

(*b.*) No; because only those schools which do not require inspection would invite it. Compulsory inspection might be useful, but not voluntary.

(*c.*) These would probably produce conceited prigs, not well-educated ladies.

(*d.*) The qualities of a good governess are too subtle to be determined by certificates.

19. (*a.*) These would be most useful as inducing greater accuracy in what is acquired.

(*b.*) This might benefit a large number of schools, provided the examiners could be so appointed as to enable them to be impartial and strict in the inspection.

(*d.*) It would be very desirable if teachers could in the first place be required to pass an examination in certain elementary subjects, and could then or at any subsequent period be examined in *special* subjects and obtain certificates for these.

19. (*a.*) Yes; because they necessitate continuous application with a *definite* object in view.

(*b.*) Yes. This would give a decided fillip to a school and would bring the pupils into contact with a different set of minds from their usual teachers.

(*c.*) Decidedly; because teaching is an art.

(*d.*) Yes; in order to stimulate teachers, and to eliminate from them the utterly incompetent.

19. Any or all of these would be serviceable in securing positive acquirements, while each would be open to the usual objection to such things, of leading to uniformity of results, to the detriment of individuality of taste or power. Where the examination of girls is concerned there should be entire freedom of choice as to the subjects to be examined upon, as well as with regard to the age of those examined, as their health does not admit of the regulations that are suitable for boys.

19. (*b.*) Such may do much good, if they understand their work and the difficulties of the teacher, if they really wish to know what and how things are taught, and have no earnest desire of exhibiting themselves.

19. (*a.*) These have done much good and are capable of doing still much more. This is one of the greatest wants in our national education and demands more than any other the attention of all lovers of their country.

Good teachers and well-conducted schools have no need of these; they are their own best advertisement.

19. (*a.*) It is possible that the Cambridge local examination in its present form may not be the best thing conceivable for girls, but I support it because—

(1.) It is desirable that a reasonably high standard of attainment should be kept in view of the girls in our schools, and that painstaking accuracy should be insisted on.

(2.) Friendly competition (not jealous rivalry) is a good, and since the numbers in girls' schools are usually too small to allow of much stimulus of competition within the limits of the school itself, it is well that it should be furnished by some movement beyond.

(3.) The system of private examinations as practised in girls' schools is delusive and unsatisfactory.

(4.) It is desirable that teachers should have some means of checking their defects and mistakes which their own private examinations cannot, from the nature of the case, supply, but which may be furnished to them by by not one, but a series of these examinations.

(5.) As an influence upon parents of the middle classes, leading them to allow to their daughters a more thorough systematized and serious education, it has a considerable value.

(6.) The Cambridge examination is, taking all things into account, the fairest, the most thorough, and the cheapest of any offered to girls.

(*b.*) I am inclined to look with less favour on the examination of girls' schools by appointed examiners, because—

(1.) The numbers in girls' schools are as a rule too small to provoke under such a scheme any healthy competition, and often also to allow of the expense.

(2.) The great number of girls taught at home by governesses or masters would be wholly unprovided for. Seven of our Manchester thirty-two at the last examination were sent in from their own houses.

(3.) The prestige of a school, the reputation which is its very life, would at the mercy of the mood and tense of an individual examiner who might chance to be crotchety or capricious.

(4.) The examination would then need to be almost exclusively *vivâ voce*, and therefore an incomplete test.

(5.) The range of subjects for examination would need to be much narrower than at present; an enclyclopedic scheme of education is not desirable, yet, if it be true that the mind is best educated by allowing it the free development of its own peculiar difference, a freer choice of subjects of study should be allowed than is usually done, and the examination to be of value to all would need to embrace a wider range of subjects than the individual examiner ought to be expected to be skilled in.

(*c.*) A training college would make available for wider use the skill and experience of practised teachers. At present middle-class teachers of girls especially are left to experiment blindly in ignorance of what has been done by others. But any such training should be on the top of a superior and duly attested education, or more harm than good will be done.

(*d.*) (1.) At present we can offer to parents no guarantee of our own qualifications, beyond the most sure one of results, for which, however, they are often too impatient to wait and often also incompetent to understand.

(2.) We have no present guarantee of the fitness of the teachers we employ, and are obliged to risk an experiment which is always hazardous and sometimes mischievous. The only examination by any corporate body of which I know applicable to lady teachers is that of the College of Preceptors which has conferred diplomas on 23 ladies.

(*e.*) If voluntary, and accompanied by examination of both schools and teachers, highly advisable. Voluntary because all unnecessary interference with individual liberty is hurtful, and accompanied by examination because otherwise it will be a mere delusion.

19. There seems nothing so much wanted in the education of girls as a healthy stimulant to literary exertion: this a periodical examination might assist in supplying. Meantime *vivâ voce* questioning before a public audience could be no fair experiment, as studious girls are frequently too retiring to do justice to their attainments.

Written questions, prepared by a few judicious and well-qualified examiners, would, I think, be a much fairer and more certain test.

(*d.*) Such an institution would be most valuable. I know of no means by which the general standard of female education could be more improved except by breadthening the examination so as to take in other candidates besides teachers.

19. (*b.*) (*c.*) (*d.*) (*e.*) Having been obliged from circumstances to take up teaching for a livelihood without any training for it beyond a good home education, I can say that during the 20 years of our school life it would have been a great satisfaction to me to have had our school visited by competent inspectors (in order to be informed when our plans were good and when they were defective, and the remedies for such defects), and I think no one ought to become a teacher without proper training, or to work without supervision, though fitness for the most important part of the work—moral influence, and the formation of character, cannot be given to the teacher by any amount of intellectual training or Government inspection.

19. (*b.*) I think that such inspection would probably tend to raise the character of private schools in several ways; it would certainly serve as a stimulus to the efforts of many teachers, and would, I think, be beneficial to us all by bringing our plans into comparison and competition with those adopted by others.

Nothing, moreover, is so likely to enlighten a teacher respecting her deficiences as to hear her pupils examined by one of different mental constitution and training from herself, and I should deem it very advantageous if not very delightful periodically to pass through such an ordeal. Perfect frankness of criticism on the part of inspectors would however be essential to the utility of such a plan.

(*c.*) These ought to be most beneficial.

(*d.*) I have long desired to see such a board established, both as a protection to the public and as an assistance to the teachers themselves. The proper amount of book knowledge (if, indeed, this can be specified), is after all a small part of what is required from a governess; yet hundreds of young ladies place themselves in this position who are ignorant of the very rudiments of knowledge without being aware of their deficiencies. From how much after misery would the proposed examinations preserve them by preventing them from undertaking duties for which they are quite unqualified.

19. (*a.*) The greatest good would attend the opening of the University local examinations to girls; (1) in improving the schools where they are taught; (2) in testing the capacity of those who wish to give themselves to intellectual work; (3) in supplying a certificate of intellectual capacity to those who are to become teachers.

(*b.*) Select examiners sent by the Universities would be more valuable than public examiners, for the efficiency of an examiner is not increased by constant occupation in the work.

(*c.*) No system which separates future teachers from the mass of learners can improve the teachers. Such training colleges have the same effect as foreign theological colleges have on religious teachers, as compared with the English habit of letting the religious teachers share throughout in the general education of the educated classes.

(*d.*) The difficulty of creating a new body for such purpose has been partly overcome by Queen's College for ladies, but the work can be best done by the Universities.

(*e.*) I should not expect much good to accrue from any system of registration.

Question 20. *Is there any other topic connected with the education of girls upon which you can state your views for the information of the Commission?*

20. I think that it might be desirable that a list of the best authors on each subject should be furnished and required to be used. Perhaps, I should say recommended, as some might think "required" too arbitrary.

A something should be positive.

20. From my observation, the children of the middle and lower portions of the middle class receive their education in the first case from women who have been showily but superficially educated and upon experiencing a reverse of circumstances begin a school, which their mercantile connexions support; in the other case, from young women who adopt teaching as an alternative for house work.

Many families who have no social position professedly employ governesses to whom they give low salaries, and fill up the greater portion of their time in house duties, thus precluding the possibility of their following a course of reading or study for the benefit of their pupils.

The small demand upon the capabilities of teachers, who neglect the acquisition of knowledge which they imagine will never be required, to which may be added the depressing influence arising from the love of change in parents, who often send their children from school to school, thus quenching the zeal of teachers, who do not often witness the fruit of their efforts.

In spite of these difficulties education has made great progress during the last 15 years, and the labours of the Commission will I am convinced result in good to teachers and the public.

20. One great reason of unsuccessful and unsatisfactory teaching is, that in so many cases it is taken up as a profession only as a means of livelihood, and regarded in a purely *business light*. The work is "got through," but no *heart* is put into it, and so it is only half done. This is the great difficulty we meet with in procuring assistant teachers.

20. In my former paper I thought the pupils would not like a public examination but have been led to think otherwise.

I would respectfully suggest that *one half* of the committee or examining board of every institution connected with education be formed of experienced teachers.

20. The absolute necessity of more physical exercise for healthy development is not sufficiently recognised. Parents often do not think drilling and calisthenics needful and sometimes even disapprove of them.

20. One evil to be combatted in girls' schools is a love of finery and personal admiration. This cannot be done by preaching against it. All human beings have a love of approbation. This feeling cannot be destroyed, but may be directed. The general tone of the school, or the girls' home, can direct it in any direction whatever. I have even known girls proud of physical strength, activity, and courage, and quite indifferent to personal appearance, or to praise or blame for proficiency in study. Girls generally care for personal admiration, because they are taught it at home. To counteract this, an honourable ambition should be awakened, for which purpose public examinations are useful. It is also highly desirable to call up in them a wish to succeed in life by their own meritorious exertions.

A mean ambition may be superseded by a noble one, but cannot be otherwise destroyed.

20. I think the education of girls is expected to be finished much too soon. I find parents willing to pay for many expensive masters and for good teachers, and just as the taste is beginning to shew itself their daughters are taken home, and so engaged as to lose the knowledge they had acquired.

20. I (the undersigned) have had so little to do with girls' schools that I have no right to give an opinion on most of the preceding questions, but as a mother, and in former years a governess, I have a desire to express my very strong opinion that to the *home* culture during the first 10 years of life we must look for the fruits, good or bad, of the after experience. The parents (but especially the mother) must bear the praise or blame of the aptitudes or deficiencies shown in the school or college. Even the first months of life can be made available for the commencement of those habits of patient investigation, which will result in perceptive or logical power. But are the mothers of England both able and willing to see to the daily, nay hourly, development of their offspring, and that with clear purpose and enlightened views? I fear not; and as long as young children are left to nurses and *cheap* governesses (thought to be "sufficient" at an early age), so long will our present disgraceful failures in education continue to exist.

We have to educate a race of mothers whose chosen occupation it shall be to form intelligently and carry out with earnestness a well defined scheme of development of their children's powers. I am inclined to think that while awaiting the working of slower processes, no one step would at present be so desirable as to establish in all large towns systems of lectures with examinations, all conducted privately for girls of 17 or 18 and upwards, such as we have witnessed for some years in London.

20. I think I may here suggest that the subjects selected for the examinations should be carefully appropriated to the minds of young girls; they are, we know, often trifling and frivolous, therefore, the subjects they are required to study, and, as it is for an examination, study carefully, ought not to appear to countenance their propensities; as in the case of Giller's Fables in German, Le Misanthrope Molière, Picciola, &c.

It is true foreign literature offers but little suitable for girls.

20. One important step towards the better education of girls would be some limitation to the requirements made of ordinary governesses. The young lady who goes out to teach and who must endeavour to meet this, naturally strives to acquire something of all kinds of subjects, and often knows nothing accurately and thoroughly: the mischief does not end with herself, for she again imparts elementary instruction of the worst kind.

20. As a general rule, especially in boarding schools, girls are too much under a continuous strain. There should be more healthful physical exercise. In

addition to the ordinary branches of education, girls in the upper and middle ranks of society should be taught gardening, cooking, and sewing. The last it is to be admitted is generally taught, but it should extend to cutting out and dressmaking.

20. I think the education of boys and girls may be advantageously conducted together. The presence of girls tempers the roughness of boys, and the presence of boys tones down the thoughtlessness of many girls. Each checks the other, and the desire to appear creditably in each other's presence stimulates to exertion and propriety. I have not found any ill results from the mixture of classes, and have found that from feeling no line of separation drawn between them there has not appeared any disposition to notice each other, as is the case in some schools where they are rigidly separated.*

20. The main improvements required are those principles involved in the education of boys, *i.e.*, that it should have more reference to their probable future life than it now has. Healthy and strong frames, fit either for physical or mental exertion, should be secured by a far greater amount of freedom and open air exercise than is now granted to girls.

A combination of industrial with intellectual training would not only tell favourably on the latter, but would prepare for the domestic life which falls to most girls.

20. (*a.*) Is it necessary, or even right, that the education of girls should be conducted solely or chiefly with a view to the chances of marriage?

(*b.*) Is it not desirable, in all dealings with the education of girls of the middle classes, to keep in view the changing condition of modern society, which would seem to throw more and more the burden of their own life upon the women of these classes, and that whether we consider that life in its intellectual, moral, or material aspect?

(*c.*) Is it not wise, therefore, in view of present difficulties, to educate girls and women for a life of active and useful labour, which may or may not be purely domestic in its character?

(*d.*) Is it hopeless to expect that some portion of endowments, misappropriated in the past, unappropriated at present, or to be bestowed in the future, some portion adequate to the importance of the subject, should be allotted to the improvement of the education of girls and women?

(*e.*) What reasonable objection can be raised to the institution of scholarships, fellowships (not the name but the thing), as the reward of conscientious, intellectual effort on the part of girls or women?

(*f.*) If the existence of a learned class in any community be a gain to such a community, is it not expedient that women should take their fair share of the labours and rewards of such a class?

20. I think endowed schools for girls, or schools in which there are scholarships tenable upon certain conditions, are very necessary, and would be greatly appreciated. Many professional men with small incomes can find help in the education of their boys, but there are very few places in which such assistance can be obtained for their girls. So far as I know there are only the Ladies' Colleges, in which there are some exhibitions, and the *Clergy* Daughters' Schools.

20. Yes, the physical training is overlooked in these questions, and it is *exceedingly important* no lady should undertake the management of a school who has not given some attention to this point. The brain should not work hard more than *one hour* without relief in some way. Music, drawing, writing, calisthenics, or some other study requiring a different mental process will suffice. *Air* and *exercise* are absolutely necessary, and so is the watchful eye of an experienced person, who will allow no pupil to work when the attention flags from simple weariness.

20. If you can get just certificates they are very valuable, but it is a very great difficulty, people are tender of refusing, and if given, ignorant people might rely upon what would really mislead, besides many very estimable and sound people fail in examination where verbose and conceited ones make a great figure.

* This answer is given by a teacher who has conducted a mixed school of boys and girls (of the middle class) for a good many years with great success.

20. I think it very desirable to include in a girl's education some instruction in animal physiology as elucidating the laws of health: such knowledge is most essential to those whose probable duties will be the rearing of children, the nursing of the sick, the care of a family, a school, &c. It is well known that very few young women on becoming mothers have any idea how to treat an infant so as to insure for it the best conditions of health and comfort.

20. I think it much to be regretted that girls on *leaving* school generally abandon regular study; it seems to me that the period from about 17 to about 25 years of age is the most valuable for cultivating the intellectual powers, and this cultivation might be carried on by a few hours of thorough and patient work each day without interference with domestic duties and social recreation; at present many hours in the day are wasted by girls in reading inferior novels and in miserably frivolous pursuits; if these wasted hours were devoted to mental improvement a foundation would be prepared for future usefulness and wise conduct in the responsibilities, trials, and duties of life.

20. I consider that girls require a larger amount of physical exercise and recreation than is usually allowed them, and tastes that are peculiarly feminine should by all means be encouraged.

I may add that the art of teaching as a science has been taught in this school for the last four or five years with good effect. The pupils have always shown great interest in these lectures.

20. As a general remark female education here is often very deficient in thoroughness. The following seem to be among the reasons: girls are not kept so constantly at school as boys, they spend much more time in acquiring accomplishments, and they have no stimulant such as preparing for business or a profession.

A college to test and to supplement school or home education might do much to assist in giving this useful stimulant.

Many parents express great anxiety to give a best education to their daughters; they dream, however, that education to them means quite a different thing from what it does to their sons. The prospect of an entrance examination to test previous instruction might awaken them to the importance of more regularity in study during the earlier years of girlhood.

20. The only subject on which I have had special means of forming an opinion is on the effect of public schools for secondary instruction for girls and boys united. The public spirit which exists in such schools, the self-government, the consciousness of responsibility, the increased purity to *girls* and *boys*, when the sexes are kept together till 15 years of age, the greater manliness of the boys and greater gentleness of the girls, the *real, useful* character which has been formed for after life, has been remarked by every one who has known anything of a large school of the kind I have worked for 15 years.

20. I cannot but feel aware that the whole actual system of education by means of private governesses is defective or worse. Parents ought to be aware that no one person can be a proficient in each and all of the acquirements they continually stipulate for in the instructress of their daughters. Various languages and varied intellectual and literary attainments may reasonably be looked for in the same persons, because these are things which play into each other's hands; what improves one tends to improve all, and an intelligent mind adds to its stores in hours of recreation and social intercourse no less than in hours of study. Not so with such accomplishments as music and drawing; they are kept up and perfected only by the *direct devotion* of a large amount of time, and what is given to them is so much taken from every other pursuit.

It seems also desirable that a teacher, her thorough competence once secured, should be as little as possible a mere teacher. Habitual contact with childish intellects alone, habitual contemplation of the various branches of knowledge only as they can be presented to such intellects, greatly cramps a mature understanding and a cultivated taste, and mere conscientious weary-minded study after school hours will be powerless to restore the freshness and elasticity necessary for the assimilative processes of mental digestion. Opportunity should as far as possible be afforded for the governess to keep up interests beyond her profession and her school-room, *or the pupils* will in the end be losers.

MANCHESTER FREE GRAMMAR SCHOOLS.

REPORT BY MR. BRYCE.

THE Manchester school is one of the oldest, if not the very oldest foundation in Lancashire. Like so many others, it seems to have originated in a chantry, endowed (for the benefit of a priest, who was also to keep a free school) by one Richard Bessike or Bexwyke, at the beginning of the sixteenth century, and afterwards absorbed into the free grammar school which Joan and Hugh Bexwyke established under the directions and at the cost of their relative, Hugh Oldham, Bishop of Exeter. The latter of the two foundation deeds (bearing date A.D. 1525) was made after the bishop's death; it contains a number of rules for the management of the school, which were probably suggested by him, and are curiously illustrative of the state of manners and education at the time. By these rules the foundation continued to be governed until quite recent times. At the end of last century, when De Quincey, who has so vividly described his life there, was one of its scholars, it was a classical boarding school of great repute, but, so far as appears, of no particular service to the townspeople. Subsequently dissensions and difficulties arose. Chancery proceedings were more than once instituted, of course to the great detriment of the school funds; and schemes were obtained, first, in 1833, and again in 1849. The latter of these, which threw the trusteeship, hitherto exercised by county magnates, into the hands of Manchester people, forbade the masters to receive any boarders whatsoever, specified the salaries to be paid to the masters, and made an immense number of other provisions on matters of detail which might as well have been left unnoticed. The old rules of A.D. 1525 are not considered to have been wholly abrogated by this scheme, although many of them are no longer observed. The head master, for instance, is no longer required to be an unmarried man; the scholars do not attend church on Wednesdays and Fridays, they do not speak Latin at all hours, nor do they repeat litanies for the souls of Hugh Oldham, his father and his mother.

For the last two or three years, the school has again been in Chancery; and a few weeks ago a decision pronounced by Vice Chancellor Wood in 1865 was confirmed by the Lords Justices of Appeal. By this decision the main question of the admission of paying scholars has been settled; and it may be expected that the details of the new scheme which this change involves will, before long, be definitely settled and made known.

II. The present constitution of the charity is somewhat complicated. The management of the revenues and of the concerns of

the school generally, so far as the same is not specially vested in other persons, belongs to twelve feoffees, who must be "occupiers "of, and resorting to, and personally carrying on professions, "businesses, or pursuits in manufactories, warehouses, or other "establishments in the parish of Manchester." They are a self-renewing body, and have a general power of making ordinances and regulations, subject to the original statutes and the Chancery scheme of A.D. 1849. The Dean of Manchester, as representing the Warden of the ancient College of Manchester, is visitor. The scheme of 1849 empowers him, in conjunction with the high master (the feoffees being umpires in case of disagreement) to choose assistant masters, appoint exhibitioners, engage persons to lecture in such particular arts and sciences as may from time to time be thought suitable, and exercise a supervision over the educational arrangements of the school as a whole. Finally, the President of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, has the right of appointing the high master and the ostiarius or usher (who alone of the masters are a part of the original foundation), but does not otherwise interfere in the affairs of the school. So far as I could ascertain, this system has of late years worked sufficiently smoothly. The feoffees, who are persons of influence in the city, appear to enjoy its confidence, and although the cares of business do not permit them to give much continuous attention to the school affairs, they seem to take a lively interest in its welfare. It is an anomaly that the two highest masters should be appointed by a non-resident person, who has no further concern in the school, but it is one of those anomalies which produce as much good as harm. More than once it appears to have been the means of procuring better men for the masterships than would have been likely to offer themselves under any other circumstances.

III. The singular point in the financial history of the school is that, after having seen its revenues increase to many fold their original quantity, it has, for the last thirty years, seen them steadily decrease. The present amount of income will be seen from the balance sheet furnished by the feoffees. It is derived from four principal sources:

1. Chief rents, not susceptible of increase.
2. Dividends on 12,000*l.* in the three per cents.
3. Rents of houses in Manchester. Most of this property lies in an unimproving neighbourhood, and the houses themselves are old, so that there is no reason to expect any considerable rise in their value; there may even, I was told, be a deterioration.
4. Profits of the malt mills. Certain water corn-mills, situate on the stream called the Irk, were given to the school at its foundation, and at these, by a custom which has more than once received the sanction of the courts of law, the inhabitants of Manchester were bound to grind their corn. In A.D. 1758 an Act of Parliament abolished this monopoly (which had been found inconvenient and oppressive) except as regards malt, which must still be ground at the school mills. As other mills, however, have been established beyond the limits of the borough, the profits of

the monopoly have greatly declined. In 1835 the gross receipts were 3,778*l.*, in 1862, 889*l.*; in this latter year the profit is returned as being about 500*l.*, in 1865 it was only 372*l.* 16*s.* 5*d.* The total income of the charity in 1865 was 2,993*l.* 17*s.* 3½*d.* Of this a considerable part is absorbed by the expenses of management, so that not more than 2,482*l.* was spent on school purposes, 1,937*l.* 8*s.* 3*d.* of which went to pay the salaries of the masters. Only the head and the second master receive salaries exceeding 200*l.*; the remaining seven masters have stipends varying from 180*l.* to 120*l.** It is of course very difficult to procure highly qualified and energetic men for salaries such as these, especially as the cost of living is high in Manchester. Thus the feoffees find it all that they can do to maintain their staff of teachers in efficiency, and they are necessarily unable to spend money upon any of those other objects which the Chancery scheme directed them to carry out—the payment of a German teacher and of lecturers in various branches of art and science, the establishment of exhibitions, the purchase of lexicons for the boys, the bestowal of special rewards upon deserving pupils.

IV. The schoolrooms occupy two distinct buildings, some fifty or sixty yards apart. Those in the main pile are quite large enough for the number of boys at present in them, and are, for the most part, well furnished and well ventilated. As the building, however, covers but little ground, and is raised to a considerable height, most of the rooms are upstairs, and have to be approached, some by one long flight of stone steps, some by two. Thus a good deal of fatigue is caused to the masters and boys, as well as a good deal of noise. The head master must also find a greater difficulty in supervising the school generally than he would find if the classes were all of them accommodated, as is the case in most schools, upon the ground floor and the first floor only. It is still less desirable that he should have to pass, as he now has, along a street to visit the class-rooms in the other building. These rooms are approached from a small sunken court; they are not very commodious, and one of them, lying low, is inconveniently dark. Neither building has any pretensions to elegance. More serious than any defects of the rooms are the defects of the site. The school stands in a mean street, fronting to and bounded on either side by mean houses, some of them shops, others taverns; one, if I remember right, the warehouse of a second-rate undertaker. Drunken men may occasionally be seen staggering past the door. There is no playground, unless a court of some dozen yards each way can be called one, so that the boys must at play hours be turned right out into the street. There is no gymnasium nor other place for play in wet weather, and no land now belonging to the school on which one could be constructed, nor any funds available for fitting it up. These are great drawbacks to the success of the school, but against them must be set its admirably central position. It is close to the Victoria

* I do not include among these the drawing master, who attends from the government school of art, and who is returned as receiving 20*l.*

terminus, where the railways from Wigan, Leigh, Bolton, Bury, Rochdale, Oldham, and Ashton converge; it is only half a mile from the London Road station, where the trains from Stockport and the whole populous district to the south and south west of Manchester enter the city; it is not five minutes walk from the Exchange, from which omnibuses run to the most distant suburbs. This accessibility is an advantage too great to be lost; it would seem better, therefore, not to think of moving the school, but to make such efforts as can be made to improve the neighbourhood, to buy a site for a gymnasium, and if possible to procure so much land as might furnish a tolerable playground. Between the school and the great thoroughfare which runs from the Exchange to the Victoria station lie the buildings of Cheetham's Hospital, a richly endowed charity school, in which about one hundred boys receive board, clothing, and education.* Attached to the school is a large playground, apparently of no great service to the blue-coat boys, who, so far as my observation goes, sometimes wander about in it, but never play. Looking out from the windows of the grammar school over this playground, which lies immediately beneath them, it was impossible not to wish that some arrangement could be made by which the use of the ground might be given to the grammar school boys, Cheetham's Hospital receiving compensation in some other way.

I may remark that although the school buildings are quite large enough for the present number of scholars (about 250), they could not conveniently accommodate very many more. If the establishment is to be enlarged, as I can hardly doubt that it will be when the new scheme comes into operation, it would be desirable that additions should be made, not merely sufficient for the 100 or 150 new scholars who may enter at first, but upon a comprehensive plan, which will keep in view the possibility that there may some day be here, as in the great schools of Liverpool, 800 or 900 scholars.

V. Respecting the educational arrangements of the school, I need say the less that they have been already described to you in evidence, and that they are at present in a state of transition. When I visited Manchester the present high master had held office for some six years only, and was proceeding gradually in the re-organization of the school, contemplating, as I understood, more extensive changes when the scheme, which has for two years been before the Court of Chancery, should have been finally settled. At present the school, though nominally divided (in conformity with the Chancery scheme of 1849) into an upper and lower department, is virtually one from top to bottom. Boys are admitted half-yearly by an examination in dictation, English grammar, and arithmetic, which has practically become competitive, the number of applicants greatly exceeding the vacancies. Promotion is made upon the results of periodical examinations in

* There is also a valuable library in the Cheetham's Hospital buildings, which it would, of course, be desirable to retain in its present site, even if the school were to move elsewhere.

the school work generally, classics holding the chief place, so that a boy rises more rapidly by his proficiency in that than in any other subject. The regular course of study, Latin and Greek, French and mathematics, being compulsory on all boys, is the same throughout. There is, therefore, no system of bifurcation, but when a boy enters the higher classes he is usually permitted to concentrate his attention either upon classics or upon mathematics, according to the capacity which he shows for either study. The tendency of the school is on the whole to lay more stress on languages than on mathematics, and in the lower forms less relative attention is given to what are called the commercial subjects than they would receive in the private schools of the city. It is organized, as will be understood from what has been said already, by forms and not by departments, each master, save the French master, taking his form in all the subjects they work at. The only exception to this is in the case of mathematics, for which the four lowest forms are redistributed, while the best boys of the three upper are taken apart from the other members of their forms by the mathematical master. The direct teaching of the head master is confined to the sixth form, but he is in the habit of visiting the other classes, and, from time to time examining them. As I have said, it belongs to him, in conjunction with the Dean of Manchester, to appoint and dismiss all the masters except the second, who is a part of the original foundation.

The school is examined annually, in June, by three paid examiners from the universities, and by them the chief prizes are adjudged. There are at present no school exhibitions. Looking at the matter in a pecuniary point of view, their place is amply supplied by close scholarships at St. John's, Cambridge, and Brasenose, Oxford. But the close scholarship system works ill in many respects both for a college and for a school, and these scholarships are prizes far less considerable than exhibitions of equal value and unshackled as respects the college or university to which their holder must proceed.

VI. I examined the school by papers and *vivâ voce*, and put myself in communication with the university examiners who were then (my visit fell about the middle of June) conducting the stated examination. As they were chiefly concerned with the upper forms of the school, and as the work of these forms is also tested by the performances of their boys at the universities, I devoted my attention mainly to the lower and middle parts of the school. The general result was highly creditable, more particularly in classics, which I found excellently taught in some forms, and very fairly well in the remainder. Mathematics were not quite so good, although there were two forms at least in which the average was high, and some boys who showed great promise. All, or nearly all, the forms below the fifth were questioned in history, geography, and English grammar; their answers showed a respectable, and in the case of one form, a very considerable knowledge. As respects the arithmetic, there was a good deal of difference between the work of the various classes

In one or two it was very good, in one or two others, which I need not particularize, it was below the mark. Comparing the work done with that of the best private schools in Manchester which I examined, one would say that the classics of the grammar school, and to a less extent its mathematics, are stronger than those of the private schools; its teaching of what are called the commercial subjects somewhat weaker. Taken as a whole, and compared as well with other grammar schools similarly placed as with the average level of the private schools, the educational state of the school may be pronounced worthy of its fame and its importance. Some of the teaching—that of the sixth form in particular, from which many pupils have passed to distinguish themselves at the universities—was remarkably good; and in every part of the establishment I remarked a spirit of activity, and an effort after thoroughness. Few schools have done so well at the same time in the local examinations and in gaining scholarships at the universities. At the same time it is proper to say that there was a good deal of inequality among the classes, and that in some of the lower forms there were faults both in the teaching and the discipline, which led me to believe that the difficulty (mentioned already), of getting good masters at low salaries, had told for evil upon the school. It may very possibly be desirable to increase the proportion of teachers to boys; it is certainly necessary to increase the stipends of the teachers who are now at work, and to do this by giving them some interest in the success of the school. Other educational changes, such as the introduction of natural science, and the bestowal of somewhat more attention upon the commercial subjects, I need scarcely advert to, since the authorities of the school already feel their necessity, and have been led by this feeling to apply for a scheme which may place larger funds at their disposal.

VII. Having already, in my general report upon the state of education in Manchester, described the position which the grammar school holds in the town, I may dismiss this branch of the subject in a few words. Being a free school, the grammar school is used by all classes of the community. The really poor, however,—those persons who can ill afford to pay 4*l.* per annum for their children's schooling, are very scantily represented; their children may be no more, perhaps less, than six or eight per cent. of the whole. Of the remainder, I should conjecture that about one-third are the sons of small shopkeepers, clerks, and warehousemen, one-third of the better shopkeepers and merchants of moderate fortune, one-third of professional men. Owing to its classical character, the grammar school is, *par excellence*, the school which clergymen, lawyers, and doctors affect for their children; while the bulk of the commercial class use the private schools, and the richest merchants and manufacturers send their sons to the great boarding schools of the south of England, Harrow and Rugby, Marlborough, Haileybury and Clifton. Classical, however, as the grammar school is, the bulk of its boys are intended for business, and the great majority of them leave at or before 16 years of age. It is,

therefore, of the greatest importance to secure the thoroughness of the commercial education, and to have provision made for the teaching of subjects like natural science, a knowledge of which may be turned to practical account in after life.

VIII. It remains to make a few remarks upon the prospects of the school for the future, and on the controversy which has, during the last five years, been carried on respecting the imposition of fees. When I was in Manchester this controversy, having caused no small excitement during the years 1863 and 1864, had begun to subside, and I did not hear much about it, except from those persons whose opinions I made it my business to ascertain. The matter has been fully discussed before Vice Chancellor Wood, and again before the Lords Justices of Appeal in Chancery; so that very little need be said about it here. The main point of the scheme proposed by the feoffees is the admission alongside of the foundationers, who are to continue to receive a gratuitous education, of a certain number of non-foundationers, who shall pay an annual fee not exceeding 12*l.* 12*s.* per annum. The foundationers are to be selected by examination; their number is for the present to be 250, but it is to be made liable to be increased or diminished according to the state of the endowment revenues.

In support of the proposed imposition of fees four arguments are brought forward:

1. That the salaries of the masters are now too low, and that if the school funds continue to decline it will be necessary either to lower them still further or to diminish the number of scholars.

2. That, whatever the number of scholars, there are certain things which ought to be taught, and cannot now be taught for lack of funds; viz., natural science, German, and gymnastics.

3. That a playground is urgently needed, not to speak of less necessary but yet desirable improvements which might be made in the present site and buildings.

4. That the teachers ought to have, and while the school is free cannot have, a direct interest in increasing its numbers and efficiency.

The arguments relied on by its opponents are these—

1. That the founders of the school expressly forbade the taking of any school hire, and that their prohibition has been repeatedly confirmed by the Court of Chancery.

2. That the introduction of two classes of boys into the same school would cause social jealousies.

3. That it is desirable that the highest education, and in particular the means of entering the universities, should continue to be within the reach of the poor.

4. That, as respects the argument from the insufficiency of funds, the school is at present successful; and that the community is more benefited by a school open even to a limited number of the poor than by one where a greater number of scholars are received at the risk of excluding or discouraging the poor.

Upon these arguments it may be remarked—

(*a.*) That although the founders forbade fees they do not appear to have intended the school for the poor alone, but for boys of all classes. The statutes, for instance, forbid a scholar to wear a "dagger, hanger, or other weapon invasive," and sometimes speak of "poor scholars" in a manner which implies that not all were to be poor. The intent of Bishop Oldham, as appears from his own words, was to benefit Lancashire by supplying that want of education which he had been accustomed to deplore; and the question how his intentions may best be fulfilled is simply a question as to how the school may become most generally useful to the city and county.

(*b.*) That the income of the school is not at present sufficient either to pay the requisite masters or to provide the requisite buildings and other external appliances. As has been said, there are certain subjects and certain classes not now handled with adequate vigour, and in which an improvement cannot well be expected until higher salaries can be held out as an attraction to more highly qualified teachers. Natural science, moreover, a subject which, in Manchester, might be made to have a practical over and above its educational value is now, for want of funds, excluded from the curriculum.

(*c.*) That it is not really a question of turning the poor out of the school, inasmuch as the poor are not now, to any considerable extent, in it. If there are 20 boys in the school, out of 250, whose parents could not pay 6*l.* per annum for their schooling, there can scarcely be more. Most of them belong to the class which in private day schools pays from 10*l.* to 16*l.* per annum. The poor of Manchester, or rather the people who don't wear black coats—the artisans and mechanics, who are often far better off than the clerks—do not think of using the grammar school, because if they desire any education for their children, they desire only reading, writing, and arithmetic. The average age at which boys are now admitted to the grammar school is between 11 and 12, which is just the age when boys of the manual labour class are sent to the factory or the workshop. The really important thing is, therefore, not to keep the school open for any casual 250 out of the many thousand sons of the poor in Manchester, but to make its endowment a means of helping those poor children who will use and profit by a superior education, and fitting them, so far as knowledge goes, to rise in the commonwealth and become useful members of it.

(*d.*) That the feeling of Manchester has pronounced itself in favour of the imposition of fees. At first public opinion was against the feoffees; a town council committee, for example, reported adversely to their proposal. Latterly, however, and more especially in consequence of that modification of the original plan which provides that a number of free places shall always be retained proportioned to the value of the endowment, the tide turned; a town's meeting pronounced in favour of the scheme as amended; and I found, after inquiring the opinions of

a good many Manchester men, that the great majority approved of the change. They believed, and with good reason, that there is no difficulty in having free and paying scholars in the same school—no difficulty, that is to say, which may not easily be overcome by a judicious and energetic head master who sets the example of disregarding social differences and valuing intellectual and moral excellence alone. I cannot doubt, therefore, that the recent decision of the Lords Justices, confirming Vice Chancellor Wood's decree for the admission of paying scholars, will be received with satisfaction in the town, and will open up to the school a career of wider usefulness and increased reputation.

IX. There were several questions raised in the proposed scheme, and adverted to by the Lords Justices in giving judgment, on which it may be proper to touch briefly.

(1.) Amount of fees.—The feoffees proposed to make 12*l.* 12*s.* a maximum; the Lords Justices have suggested 16*l.* 16*s.* Without inquiring which sum would be more suitable, I may remark that the example of many foundations in all parts of the country proves that it is undesirable to have such a point as this settled by a court on a permanent footing. It is a matter of administrative detail, which can only be determined by experience, and the best plan would be to permit the feoffees to fix it, from time to time, at what seemed a proper level, subject to the approval of an authority conversant with educational questions, and able to do business in a less formal and less costly way than the Court of Chancery does it.

(2.) Method of applying the school funds.—Here the same questions arise. It is usual for Chancery schemes to prescribe the exact objects on which money shall be spent, and the exact quantities to be spent on each object, although neither the Court nor any one else can tell beforehand what objects may turn out to be the most important, and what expenditure each is worth. In this case the income will in future be derived from two sources —the endowment and the fees; and it is desirable either to give those who manage the school a tolerably wide discretion to dispose of the whole income as they judge best, or if not, then at least to allow them full freedom in the distribution of that part which comes from the fees. It is important that there should be a power of varying the salaries of masters; and it is especially desirable that these salaries should in some measure depend upon the number of boys in the school, since in this way every master has a direct interest in the school's success, and feels that the harder he and his colleagues work the better it is for himself and for them. As to the founding of exhibitions and the application of a fixed part of the revenue to them, this also is a matter regarding which no precise arrangement can be made until it is seen how the school works under its new scheme; and it is one which any changes that may be made in the universities may at any time make it necessary to reconsider. If the present system of close scholarships (*i.e.*, scholarships attached to a certain school) in colleges at Oxford and Cambridge should be, as it probably may be,

modified, the question of exhibitions will assume a new aspect. Yet it is most undesirable either that the feoffees should have to recur to the Court of Chancery whenever they want a change, or that they should be deterred, by the tedious and expensive character of such recurrence, from introducing the changes that may be needed.

(3.) Method of admitting boys to the benefits of the foundation.—The scheme of the feoffees proposed that boys should be admitted by a competitive examination. The Court of Chancery, thinking that dull boys, or those whose early education has been neglected, have as much claim to the benefits of the school as boys of talent, questions the propriety of an examination, and desires to place the appointment of foundationers in the hands of the feoffees. The Court has not, however, suggested by what principle the feoffees should be guided in their selection; nor is it altogether easy to see any alternative between choice on the ground of intellectual merit, and the exercise of a random patronage which might easily incur the suspicion of corruption. The feoffees are merchants and manufacturers in Manchester, busy men, who have not the leisure nor the opportunities for seeking out deserving objects among the poor of the city, and who know by experience how little the recommendations of friends can be trusted. The abuse of charity patronage is proverbial; and a school whose endowment served no better purpose than to give free education to any chance 250 boys whose parents were not ashamed to beg a nomination from a feoffee might as well be spared to the town. Whether or not economists are right in holding all free schools mischievous, as interfering with the laws of demand and supply, we may, at any rate, believe that a foundation renders greater services when it stimulates the education of a large number of persons than when it gives a gratuitous education to a few.

Another objection made to the competitive system is that it puts the poor at a disadvantage, inasmuch as they cannot afford to have their children prepared to compete on equal terms with those of the rich. This danger is not imaginary; it might, however, be met by reserving a discretion to the feoffees to intimate to persons of substance that the benefits of the foundation were not meant for them, and by taking steps to create a feeling in the town which would make a rich man ashamed to save himself 12*l.* a year by keeping a poor man's son out of the school.

Some people have suggested that a certain number of these free places might be attached as prizes to the Privy Council schools of Manchester; and it would, at any rate, be proper, if self-supporting public schools are founded—as it is to be hoped they will be founded for the sake of the poorer section of the commercial class—to throw open a certain number of places on the grammar school foundation to the boys who shall have most distinguished themselves there.

The most pressing need of the school at this moment (besides

a playground) is the strengthening of the teaching staff in its lower departments. No master in a school of such importance, ought to have less than 200*l.*, most of them ought to have more than 350*l.* a year. It is to be hoped, with a view to the attainment of this, as well as for the sake of the general prosperity of the school, that the arrangements of the new scheme will be made on a sufficiently wide basis. It would be a misfortune to introduce provisions restricting the number of pay scholars to 100 or 200, or indeed to do anything which should impose a limit on the extension of the school. In a place like Manchester, no limit can be fixed; good management might double or treble the present number of scholars. In the town itself there are now 500,000 people, and within the distance of an hour's railway journey there are not less than 800,000 more. However strenuous the pressure towards a purely commercial education, there are already many in this vast population who desire a superior classical and scientific training for their sons, and in course of time one cannot doubt that there will be many more.

The mention of the populous neighbourhood leads me to speak, in conclusion, of a matter not touched upon in the Chancery proceedings, but of considerable importance to the welfare of the school. The scheme of 1849 absolutely forbade any of the masters to receive boarders. That prohibition might, so far as I could judge, be with safety removed, although it would not be wise to remove it in the face of any opposition from the townspeople. It is so evidently the main business of the school to be a day school, and it is so little likely that very wealthy parents will send their sons to board in Manchester, that there seems no danger lest a master who received boarders should try to keep them apart from the day scholars, or take more trouble in teaching them. If, however, the feeling of the town is still against such a change, it might at least be desirable to consider the propriety of erecting hostels where lads from a distance might be received to board at a moderate charge, and placed under proper supervision, instead of being forced to look out for lodgings, or for some family in the town who could take them in. The number of boys who board in Manchester to attend the school is already considerable; the new scheme will increase it; such hostels might be expected to increase it still further. Considering the revenues and the reputation of the Manchester Grammar School, its position in the centre of the manufacturing district, and the want in most parts of that district of a provision for superior education, any measure which should extend its benefits to the neighbouring towns, and make places in its foundation prizes accessible as well to them as to Manchester residents, cannot but deserve serious consideration.

ON A

PROPOSED SYSTEM OF GROUPING SCHOOLS IN THE COUNTY OF WESTMORLAND.

By D. C. Richmond, Esq., Assistant Commissioner.

My Lords and Gentlemen,

The condition of the county of Westmorland with reference to the existing means of education for the middle and lower classes of its inhabitants is in some respects peculiar, and seems to call for some special notice.

Although, therefore, my instructions did not extend to the framing of any general report upon the schools subjected to my inspection, I have thought it best to offer, in the form of a separate paper, some remarks upon the more distinctive phenomena of the county. They are such as arise naturally from a survey of the district as a whole, but could not be appropriately introduced in connexion with any one in particular of the schools upon which it has been my duty to present separate reports.

Peculiarity of Westmorland.

The peculiarity to which I refer finds expression in the unusually large number of endowed schools in the county which were classed by the Charity Commissioners as Grammar Schools in 1822, and which appear in the return of Endowed Grammar Schools presented to the House of Commons in 1865. They are no less than 40 in number to a population scarcely exceeding 60,000, or at the rate of one school to every 1,500 inhabitants.

Large number of Grammar Schools.

With the single exception of Rutland, Westmorland is, in respect of population, the smallest county in England, and is smaller than all but two of the counties in Wales. In spite of this, Lancashire and Yorkshire, with their enormous populations, are the only counties which surpass Westmorland in the number of their reputed grammar schools. The counties of Huntingdon and Brecon, which approach most nearly to the population of Westmorland, are credited respectively with four and one only.

The districts which most closely resemble Westmorland in their general features are Cumberland and the North Riding of Yorkshire; and accordingly we find in them too a comparatively larger number of grammar schools than is usual in other parts of the country. But the proportion still falls very far short of that in Westmorland. Cumberland has but 30 of these schools to a population more than three times as great as that of Westmorland, and the North Riding has but 25 to a still larger population.

In respect, therefore, of the mere number of its reputed grammar schools, Westmorland stands altogether unrivalled.

The schools are of two classes.

The list is composed of two classes of schools. The greater part are those which, by the terms of their foundation or of some subsequent benefaction, were required to give classical instruction, and which, whatever their existing practice might be, would, as a matter of course, retain their original designation. To these the Charity Commissioners added about a dozen others, which were not founded as grammar schools, but were ascertained by them to be actually giving classical instruction at the time of their inquiry. By this mode of computation the list was swelled somewhat beyond the proportions warranted either by the prescriptions of benefactors or the existing practice; for some of the schools which had been founded as grammar schools had already lost their original character. On the balance, however, it may be safely inferred that there were then, less than half a century ago, upwards of 30 endowed schools, at which Latin at least was actually being taught to some of the scholars. The interval has sufficed to reduce this imposing total to very meagre dimensions.

Number teaching Latin 50 years ago.

My inquiry, supplemented, so far as a few schools are concerned, by Mr. Fitch, shows that of the 40 endowed schools above referred to (one of which is altogether in abeyance) at 11 only is any classical instruction given. At four of these it is confined to one or two boys learning the first rudiments of Latin, and is, in fact, purely nominal and illusory; at three a small class only was learning Latin, for the most part quite rudimentary. There remain four only at which the regular curriculum includes instruction in classics; three of these alone attempt Latin of a more advanced kind, and Greek. They are the schools at Appleby, Heversham, and Kirkby-Lonsdale. Of these again Appleby and Heversham alone possess any pupil properly qualified by age and attainments to enter upon a university career.

Number teaching Latin now.

Equal dearth of "modern" schools.

It is not that these schools have merely changed the kind of instruction given, retaining their general character as places of superior education; the dearth of good "modern" schools in Westmorland is commensurate with that of real grammar schools; and the only schools in which mathematics, French, or other subjects of a non-classical character are successfully taught are precisely those at which Latin and Greek form the staple subject of instruction.

Why the number of Grammar Schools was so great.

In order to form a true conception of the change which has taken place, and of the present wants of the county, it is necessary first to glance at the causes which led to the unusual diffusion of classical learning in Westmorland, which was disclosed by the reports of the Charity Commissioners.

They are readily traceable to the habits and characteristics of a class of men now declining in numbers and importance, but who formerly were a great power in this part of the country; I mean the small landowners or "statesmen." Being clearly distinguished both in wealth and position from the labouring classes, they were able to keep their sons at school to a much later age, and would naturally look for some higher instruction than what is usual in

village schools. At the same time they were in many cases not rich enough to meet the expense of a boarding school on the usual model; and even if they could, they were not apt to do so. These men had very different notions about education from those which are often to be discerned among farmers and tradespeople in more southern counties. They did not regard the gentility of a boarding school; they had no thought of their sons learning manners among those who might pass with the world for their betters. A spirit of strong independence and self-sufficiency, a certain contempt for mere externals, a pride of class which admitted no desire to struggle out of that class, led the Westmorland "statesmen" to look at home for their education. There was no unwillingness to consort in the schoolroom with the children of the poor. If the village schoolmaster could teach Latin and Greek, the "statesman" would look no further for the schooling of his boys. If, unfortunately, the master were not a scholar, the boys would walk every day to a neighbouring village where Latin and Greek were to be had; or if the distance was too great, they would be sent to lodge roughly and cheaply with relatives or friends. Some of the masters of schools in small mountain townships drew very large attendances in this way, and the scholastic profession was held in high honour in the county.

Classical learning was especially in demand.

Latin and Greek were the subjects sought after; and, so far as I was able to gather, Homer, with a certain appositeness, was the favourite author. Besides a love and respect for the ancient classics, which is still constantly observable in the county, and which is in marked contrast to the general tendency of feeling among the middle classes with whom I came in contact in certain more southern counties, the study of Greek and Latin was more particularly sustained by the frequent presence in the village school of young men from 20 to 23 years of age, preparing for the service of the Church. It appears to have been regarded almost as a matter of course in the families of the larger "statesmen," that one younger son should become a clergyman. In a great number of instances he was ordained directly from the local school, or at most was sent to finish his education with some neighbouring village schoolmaster of exceptional repute as a scholar. The school at Bampton, and that at Crosthwaite and Lyth, were within living memory places of very large resort on this account. In entering holy orders, however, it was not intended that he should go forth into the world in that missionary spirit which actuates other young clergymen who have no private expectations of advancement. His sphere of labour was predetermined from the first. He was to take charge of some mountain township, in which the landowners elect their own curate, and there he would become schoolmaster as well, and perpetuate the learning which had been his own passport into the Church.

By this means a constant demand for, and supply of, classical instruction was maintained in a manner probably peculiar to the north of England and Wales.

Village schools assumed a two-fold character.

The consequence of this state of society was that the village schools assumed a twofold character. Without ceasing to perform the functions of elementary schools for the children, often of both sexes, of the poorer classes, they became also finishing schools for the grown-up sons of the landed proprietors. It was not that a small smattering of Latin was included in the regular course for all, to figure in a prospectus and dazzle the eyes of parents; the two objects of the school were clearly distinguished, and those who learnt the classics at all learnt them to some real purpose. It is said, indeed, that the elementary part of the school often suffered for the sake of the advanced class, and was left very much to take care of itself. But the case was not entirely one of a sacrifice of the claims of the poorer to those of the wealthier inhabitants, for the love of Greek and Latin spread downwards among many of the poorer class, and to this day men can frequently be met in the humbler walks of life who speak with pride of their recollections of Virgil and Homer.*

Recent changes in the social condition of "statesmen" and farmers.

During the last half century the social condition of Westmorland has undergone very marked modifications, more especially in reference to the tenure of the land. The small owners are gradually disappearing, as their lands are absorbed by large proprietors, and in place of the "statesmen" is now to be found a race of small and poor tenant farmers. In some parishes, indeed, the absorptive action of large estates has not yet been seriously felt, and the statesman still holds his own; but I was assured on all hands that the process is quietly and rapidly progressing, and to its action a great deal of the exceptional phenomena presented by the Westmorland schools may be safely attributed. It has drawn off the class which supplied the demand for classical teaching, and replaced it by a body of men represented to be as ignorant and almost as poor as the day labourers. It has separated the offices of curate and schoolmaster, and so deprived the latter both of position and emolument. By this process the spiritual wants of the village have certainly been better provided for, but the standard of ability among the masters

Consequent failure in the demand for classics.

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* The following extract from the Report of the Charity Commissioners on Ambleside School may serve to give an insight into the style of the Westmorland grammar schools half a century ago:—

"The school is stated to be not in very good repair; and the upper part of the building is now used as a granary * * * The master takes all the boys of the township of Ambleside free from any charge whatever. They are taught reading, writing, accounts, and the classics. The custom of the school is to set apart Thursday for writing and accounts, which are taught only on that day. Children are not admitted till they can read words of two syllables.

"Some of the children give a cockpenny at Shrovetide, which varies from 1*s.* to 1*l.*, or in some cases more.

"There are not, however, more than half a dozen children now who give anything, and those are the sons of the better sort of the inhabitants.

"There are from 30 to 40 boys on an average in the school. Fourteen are now learning classics. There have been three or four young men ordained from this school in the course of the last three years."

Clearly those who did not learn classics got little instruction on five days in the week.

has been as certainly lowered. And of course, in common with the rest of the country, Westmorland has felt the power of advancing civilization, and, under the influence of improved facilities of communication, is losing many of its distinguishing features, and has already lost all sense of remoteness or isolation.

Three courses open to the schools after these changes.

In the altered circumstances of the times it was open to the grammar schools to take one of three courses. They might either avail themselves of the opportunities opened up by the railways to widen their sphere of action, and compensate themselves for the failure of the home supply by appealing as boarding schools to the public in general; or they might be content to adapt themselves to the humbler career marked out for them at home as simple National schools; or, lastly, they might obstinately adhere to the traditions of the past, as though their occupation were now gone.

Two have become boarding schools.

Some have followed one course, some another. Heversham under energetic management has become a boarding school of considerable dimensions, while it is at the same time the elementary school of the village. At Kirkby Lonsdale excellent buildings and boarding accommodation have been provided, and the desire at least has been displayed to outstep the ancient limits of the school, although for special reasons the success attained has been but limited.

Others good elementary schools.

On the other hand, eight schools, accepting to the full the position of elementary schools, have been placed under the inspection of the Privy Council, and, their endowments being small, are in receipt of Government aid. A few more, though not under inspection, are honestly doing their best to provide suitable teaching as elementary, or nearly elementary, schools.

Others have not moved.

Others there are which give no sign of adaptability, and are little better than encumbrances. To this class belong the majority of the non-inspected elementary schools; though the most conspicuous instance is that of the school at Kendal, by far the largest and richest and most important town in the county, where, face to face with a palpable and crying demand for a good middle-class school, the existing foundation has miserably failed to make the faintest response.

The following Tabular Summary of the Westmorland Schools shows the actual condition in which they are now found. Those at Appleby and Heversham afford elementary as well as classical teaching to distinct classes of boys. At Kendal and Kirkby Lonsdale the system is uniform, and, as a rule, poor boys do not attend.

Table showing present condition of the schools.

Schools.			In Department of higher Instruction.			In Elementary Subjects.		
			Efficient.	Indifferent.	Inefficient.	Efficient.	Indifferent.	Inefficient.
(A.)								
2 High classical schools which prepare for Universities :—	Endowment. £	Exhibitions. £	2	0	0	0	2	0
Appleby - -	238	40						
Heversham -	51	88						
(B.)								
2 Latin schools having no boys old enough for Universities :—			1	0	1	No separate department.		
Kendal - -	70	25						
Kirkby Lonsdale	46	100						
(C.)								
3 Schools chiefly elementary, but with small secondary class :—								
Bampton - -	100	—	1	1	1	1	0	2
Bowness -	137	63						
Lowther, 380*l.*, of which the boys' school receives	250	—						
(D.)								
8 Elementary schools under Government inspection, with an average income from endowment of about 35*l.* each -			- -	- -	- -	6	1	1
23 Elementary schools not under inspection, with an average income from endowment of about 45*l.* each - -			- -	- -	- -	4	7	12

Orton School, closed for repairs of the school building, and not included in this Table, was in 1865 of the National school type.

This list, with some redeeming features, is sufficiently unsatisfactory to prove the necessity for some re-adjustment of the functions of these schools. It shows that out of 38 schools there is really good work in 14 only, and of these 14 six may fairly be said to owe their success mainly to the Committee of Council on Education. They certainly do not owe it to their endowments, for on the whole they are considerably poorer in that respect than the non-inspected schools, and among the non-inspected schools efficient management and teaching is a rarity.

Injurious effects of endowments to elementary schools.

Indeed, there can be no manner of doubt that in many instances the endowment as now administered is a source of unqualified evil; it introduces a body of trustees who, if the clergyman is not one of them, are altogether unfitted for their duties; it acts as a retainer for an incompetent master, who without it would probably be provided for at the workhouse; and it takes away the main inducement, as it must always be, to invite Government inspection; viz., the chance of obtaining sub-

stantial pecuniary aid. But it is scarcely possible to conceive a wider gulf than that which separates the cleanly, well-ordered, cheerful school, which thrives under a well-earned Government grant, from the slovenly, neglected, repellent aspect of the worst non-inspected schools.

Remedial measures.

With respect to the general tendency of any remedial measures, it is clear that any attempt to re-introduce classical instruction into the small townships, or to make their schools in any sense secondary, would be vain, for the endowments are small, and the pupils too few and the parents too poor to make such schools self-supporting.

In some of the large agricultural parishes, however, each of which comprises several townships, and sometimes several so-called grammar schools, there is in the aggregate a demand for higher instruction than that of the National School, sufficient, it is believed, with the aid of endowments, to maintain qualified teachers.

Demand for secondary instruction in villages;

There is no longer a sufficient demand to maintain 40 grammar schools, but there may be sufficient to maintain a dozen.* At Bampton, Crosby Ravensworth, and Tebay (in the parish of Orton) a secondary school would be valuable and conveniently situated, and would in each case be in accordance with the character of the school as contemplated in the early deeds.

At Lowther the main endowment was expressly for the education "of gentlemen's sons;" the income is more than the trustees can well spend on the elementary schools which are supported by it; and it is not too much to say that the money is to a great extent thrown away. Here is clearly a nucleus for a middle class boarding school.

in towns.

In the old towns, as Kendal, Appleby, Kirkby Lonsdale, and Kirkby Stephen, there is a continuous demand for grammar school education, and even a special regard for classical instruction. The same is represented to be the case at Burton. At Bowness and Ambleside the population is to a great extent of comparatively recent origin, and rapidly increasing, and the annual incursion of visitors and tourists adds greatly to their wealth. In each of them a secondary school has become a desideratum.

Adaptation of schools to existing wants,

The question then is, how can the existing schools be made to meet the requirements of the inhabitants as well of the towns as of the large agricultural parishes, under the now altered circumstances of the county?

The first case presents, comparatively, slight difficulties.

in towns;

At each of the towns of Kendal, Appleby, Kirkby Lonsdale, and Kirkby Stephen, a grammar school, if really efficient and properly adapted to the requirements of the middle class, will always be self-supporting. Besides this, the endowments vary from 60*l.* to 200*l.* a year, with dwelling houses for the masters. At Burton,

* On the whole subject of Westmorland schools, and the possibility of adapting them to the altered circumstances of the county, see the Evidence of the Rev. J. Simpson, Vicar of Kirkby Stephen, whose intimate acquaintance with the district gives especial weight to his suggestions. Evid. Part ii., pp. 562–579.

with an endowment which might be made available of 85*l.* a year, but without suitable premises, a school is yet to be established: the peculiar circumstances of the case are set forth in my special report. At Bowness and Ambleside both the means and the will to divide the existing schools into two departments, the one on the plan of a Grammar school, the other on that of a National school, would apparently not be wanting; the endowments are good, and in the latter case increasing, and good school buildings already exist. Indeed so far as the above-named towns are concerned it appears that if the existing endowments were thoroughly re-organized and the schools fairly started by aid of an impulse from without, an effective system of management and supervision would ensure their success thenceforth. How such a system is to be devised is a question on which I forbear to enter, for it concerns equally all other counties in the kingdom.

in villages.

With the agricultural parishes, on the other hand, the case is different; and it is here that the circumstances of this county seem to have a special bearing upon an important question raised in connexion with this Inquiry; viz., the possible grouping of small endowed schools as tributaries to a more advanced central school. In most counties any such plan involves arrangements for at least weekly boarding. In Westmorland the close proximity of many of the endowed schools makes it possible to propose a plan involving arrangements for day scholars only, which would be serviceable to the class, at present so ill provided for, of small tenant farmers, innkeepers, and small landowners, who, though able and willing to pay 4*l.* or 5*l.* a year for a son's education, cannot meet the expense of even a cheap boarding school. Such a plan, if applicable to this county only, would in no way interfere with, but would simply be subordinate to, any general system of central boarding schools.

Proposed grouping of schools.

Explanation of following table.

In the following proposed distribution, which includes the names of all the 40 reputed Grammar schools, the maximum distance between a central school and its tributaries is assumed to be five miles, a distance actually traversed on foot in some cases which came under my observation. It is also assumed that the endowed schools in small townships renounce all pretension to be more than elementary.

All the more inhabited parts of the county are comprised within radii of five miles from the proposed central schools.

It is hardly necessary to add that within those limits lie many other elementary schools, not a few of them possessed of endowments; and that these latter, though not classed by the Charity Commissioners as grammar schools, are both by foundation and in practice similar to some that were so classed. I have thought it best, however, to confine myself to those schools which actually came under my inspection, and of these I have excluded none. The arrangement, therefore, though complete so far as it goes, is by no means exhaustive of the county endowments. For the rest, I claim for the following sketch in its details no more authority than may be fairly accorded to it as the result of a two months'

acquaintance with the county. I shall be satisfied to have established the feasibility of some such organization.

Central School.	Tributary Schools.	Endowment of Central School (net Income).	Endowment of Tributary Schools (net Income).	Aggregate Endowment (net Income).	Approximate aggregate Population of *Places named only.*
		£	£	£	
Appleby	Bolton	278*	13	291	3,300
Bampton	Measand (? Swindale)	100	82	182	1,540
Burton	—	83	—	83	2,000
Crosby Ravensworth	Reagill	53	30	83	927
Heversham	Beetham, Crosscrake, Preston Patrick.	139*	62	201	4,000
Kendal	Burneside, Old Hutton, Selside, Staveley, Crosthwaite and Lyth (? Grayrigg).	95*	250	345	17,000
Kirkby Lonsdale	—	146*	—	146	1,720
Kirkby Stephen	Brough, Stainmore, Crosby Garret, Ravenstonedale, Waitby and Smardale, Winton.	69	170	239	5,000
Lowther	Cliburn, Morland, Little Strickland and Thrimby, (? Barton).	380	116	496	2,600
Tebay	Orton, Greenholme and Bretherdale.	69	105	174	2,520
Bowness	Ings	200	62	262	3,200
Ambleside	Troutbeck, Grasmere	140	51	191	2,500

* Including exhibitions.

The incomes from endowment are entered in order to show what would be the funds to be administered by central boards of management, if such were created for each proposed educational district. The aggregate of the whole is 2,693*l.* a year, of which 316*l.* exists in the form of exhibitions. The populations estimated above would be largely increased if the calculations were extended to all villages lying within the several five-mile radii. The figures given relate to the contributing parishes or townships only.

Aggregate income of the schools.

In most cases there would be no doubt which of the existing schools should be constituted central. In the case of some of the smaller places questions might arise which could only be determined by inquiries made on the spot; and the arrangement suggested would entail the division of some of the proposed central schools into two departments, of which the one would be the central school proper, and the other the local tributary school, which should be placed under the inspection of the Privy Council.

It does not fall within the scope of this Report to discuss in detail the manner in which the ties between a central school and

its tributaries should be drawn. But, with reference to the endowments of tributary schools, it may be remarked that, wherever they were given for secondary education only, a strong case might be made out for their transference, if necessary, *in toto* to the central school, at which higher subjects of instruction would be taught, and in consideration of this withdrawal of funds from the immediate control and enjoyment of the several townships, special privileges might be reserved for the inhabitants at the central school, which would still secure for them the benefit of charities originally intended for their advantage. The tributary school would then be in the position of an unendowed National or British school, and would cease to be supported by funds originally intended for other purposes. If placed under inspection and made efficient, it would thenceforth be in a position to claim a grant of money from which no deduction on account of endowment could be made, as is now the case.

Instruction in central schools.

The character of the central schools would necessarily vary to some extent. In all the larger towns the revenue from endowment and from fees of pupils would secure a master qualified to teach Latin, Greek, algebra, Euclid, and perhaps higher mathematical subjects; and instruction in French should also be provided. In the purely agricultural districts instruction in Latin, algebra, Euclid, mensuration, and book-keeping, besides the usual English subjects, would probably be sufficient.

The difficulties to be surmounted before the system could be fully developed would doubtless be far less considerable than those which surround the grouping of grammar schools round central boarding schools in other parts of the country; and they would be lessened by the hearty co-operation of some influential residents in the county who have interested themselves in the improvement of middle-class education there.

General result of grouping schools.

That, if once established and placed under effective management and supervision, the central schools would be largely attended, cannot be doubted by any one who has observed the spirit of honourable ambition which prevails among the youth of the lower middle class in this county, the good natural abilities with which they are gifted, and the willingness of the parents to allow their sons to remain at school long after their labour has become valuable, and even to pay considerable fees for very inferior education. In the place of 40 reputed, there would be 12 real grammar schools, within reach of day scholars from almost every village in the county. It is not too much to expect that by a judicious use of these small endowments, in combination with some plan for the establishment of large central boarding schools to be fed by exhibitions from tributary grammar schools, a promising boy, of parentage however poor, might rise first from the small primary school in an outlying township to the nearest central day school, where he would be grounded in classics and mathematics, and perhaps in French, and from this again might be passed on as an exhibitioner to a public school of the highest class.

The sketch which I have ventured to submit to the Commission

in the foregoing pages is the result of an attempt to fuse into something like a practical form the suggestions which were made to me from various quarters by persons interested in matters of education in Westmorland, as well as the impressions which I myself gathered during my stay there of the requirements and capabilities of the county.

I have the honour to be,
My Lords and Gentlemen,
Your very obedient servant,
D. C. Richmond.

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